

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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Thirty-Fifth Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association

The thirty-fifth annual meeting of the American Historical Association was held at the New Willard Hotel, Washington, D. C., from December 27 to 30, 1920. Among the 360 and more in attendance there was noticeable a smaller representation than usual from the northwest and middle west, due no doubt to the increased cost of travel. Meetings during the same week were held in Washington by the American Political Science Association, the American Sociological Society, the American Catholic Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, the Agricultural History Society and the National Association of State War History Organizations.

Joint sessions were held with the first named of these on Pan-American Political and Diplomatic Relations, and on Recent European History and Politics. The presidential addresses of these two Associations were also read at a joint meeting. President Channing's Historical Retrospect of the past century appears in the *American Historical Review* for January.

The Agricultural History Society met with the Association in a session devoted to Agricultural History. There were two sessions on American History, one of which was held with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. There were general sessions on Modern European History, Ancient and Medieval History, the History of Science, and one commemorating the Pilgrim Tercentenary by appropriate papers read by Prof. Clive Day on Economic Precept and Practice of the Puritans, by Lincoln Kinnicutt on the Settlement at Plymouth contemplated before 1620, and by Prof. David S. Muzzey on the Heritage of the Puritans.

At a joint meeting of the Conference of Historical Societies and the National Association of State War History Organizations the papers and discussion concerned the collection and publication of war history and records, and the co-ordination of historical societies within the states. At the business meeting of this latter society it was decided to continue the work of the organization along its present lines of activity.

The distinctive feature of the conference on the report of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools was an address by Prof. Henry Johnson on the principles governing history teaching. The reports, outlines of courses, and discussions of this Conference will be published in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for March and April, 1921.

Combining the social element with useful discussion were several breakfast, luncheon and dinner con-

ferences which this year were more popular than ever. In fact, at some of these accommodations could not be provided for all who wished to attend, and because of the confusion attending the efforts made to take care of so many the discussion in one or two instances was not as serious and helpful as it might otherwise have been. This was especially true of the luncheon conference at the Library of Congress, intended especially for graduate students and others interested in the opportunities for historical research in Washington. A tour of the Library followed the luncheon.

The subscription dinner of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association was more successful. The chief address at this meeting was made by Prof. Frederick J. Turner. There was also a breakfast conference on the proposed Manual of Historical Literature to replace the well-known work by Dr. Charles Kendall Adams. At this conference the committee appointed at the suggestion of the American Library Association presented a report of the progress made, and a discussion followed upon several questions of policy involved. The plan for the new manual provides for twenty-nine chapters which will present at least fifty per cent. more titles than appeared in the original work. It is expected that the new work will prove useful not only for public libraries and high schools, but also for college and university teachers and students. There were luncheon conferences also on Economic History, on the History of the Far East, on the History of Latin-America and on International Relations.

The most brilliant social event of the meeting was the subscription dinner held at the Willard Hotel on the evening of December 29. Dr. J. Franklin Jameson presided. The speaking was unusually good. Addresses were made by the French Ambassador, the Secretary of War, Miss Mabel Boardman (Commissioner of the District of Columbia), Hon. Paul S. Reinsch, Dr. James J. Walsh and Prof. Edward A. Ross.

The National Club House Committee of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae gave a reception to the members of the Association on the evening of December 28; a smoker was given by the Cosmos Club on the same evening, and through the courtesy of the French Ambassador and Madame Jusserand the members were entertained at the French Embassy on the afternoon of December 30.

At the business meeting of the Association the secretary reported a total membership of 2,524 as against 2,445 a year ago, it being the first net gain shown

since 1915. Two bequests received during the year were announced—the portrait of James Schouler, an ex-president of the Association, which the secretary was authorized to loan to the National Portrait Gallery; and the gift of \$5,000 by the will of George L. Beer, to be used in establishing a prize for the best work upon any phase of recent European international history. Resolutions in memory of these two deceased members were placed in the minutes of the Association. Reports of the treasurer and of the various committees were presented as acted upon by the Council. The Committee on the Justin Winsor Prize was unable to agree upon an award, and it was ordered that the three best essays considered be submitted to the committee for 1921 for early report. The Committee on the Military History Prize reported that the award had been made to Thomas Robson Hay for his essay on "Hood's Tennessee Campaign."

More than passing mention must be made of the excellent report presented by the Committee on Policy, appointed in 1917 for the purpose of preparing a comprehensive program of scientific activities which the Association might appropriately maintain or undertake. Among the twenty-two recommendations made by the committee was a proposal for a standing committee on program of the annual meetings, and a suggestion that scholarly summaries of all papers read at the meetings and not printed in the *Review* be presented in the *Annual Reports*. The committee believed that the Historical Manuscripts Commission should confine its attention to the location and calendaring of historical manuscripts and avoid the printing of materials in public depositories. The report further touched upon the work of the Public Archives Commission, the Committee on the National Archives recommended the appointment of a committee to aid the Manuscripts Division of the Library of Congress in the selection of material to be transcribed in foreign archives, and urged the reappointment of the Committee on the Documentary Historical Publications of the United States Government. Reference was made in the report to the work of the Committee on Bibliography, and to the means to be used in continuing and issuing more promptly the *Writings on American History*. It recommended that "the standing Committee on History in Schools should be reconstituted in order that the Association may have a body to which may be referred for report the various questions with respect to history teaching which come before it." Such a committee would also initiate appropriate investigations. The importance of maintaining cordial and effective relations with the various state and local historical societies and with the hereditary-patriotic societies was emphasized; and a standing Committee on Military History was proposed to advise and co-operate with the Historical Branch of the General Staff and with other governmental agencies engaged in preparing histories of the war. In considering the means of publishing historical studies unsuited to existing historical periodicals, the committee went on record for the establishment of a quarterly publication to be devoted to con-

tributions of the highest scholarship, more special or technical than those usually appearing in the *Review*, and less restricted as to length. The military history prize was given the title of the Robert M. Johnston Prize, and the George Louis Beer Prize was established. The Association was congratulated by the committee upon the part it was able to take in the organization of the American Council of Learned Societies; a much-needed Dictionary of American Biography was recommended as an undertaking to be referred to the Association's delegates to that body. The report also gave approval to the plan for establishing a University Center for Higher Studies in Washington. Two additional standing committees were recommended—a Committee on Agenda, to lay before the Council from time to time proposals of appropriate activities, and a Committee on Service, to establish relations with departments of the national government so as to make more available to the public the services of the Association and of historical scholarship. Finally, the report showed the necessity of increasing the finances of the Association, to which end a standing committee on endowment was proposed; and active measures were urged to increase the income from each member by raising the amount annually requested in addition to the dues or by advancing the dues to five dollars. In this connection it was pointed out that \$2.88 of each member's dues must now be applied to the actual printing expenses of the *American Historical Review*.

In accordance with the proposals of this last section of the report, a motion was made to amend the constitution so as to raise the annual dues from three to five dollars. Pending the consideration of this amendment at next year's meeting it was voted to ask members to make larger contributions in addition to the present dues.

In the report of the Nominating Committee the following nominations were presented, and those designated were unanimously elected:

President: Jules J. Jusserand.

First Vice President: Charles H. Haskins.

Second Vice President: Edward P. Cheyney.

Secretary: John S. Bassett.

Treasurer: Charles Moore.

Members of the Council: James T. Shotwell, Ruth Putnam, Carl R. Fish, St. George Sioussat, Carlton J. H. Hayes, Sidney B. Fay, Frederic L. Paxson, Arthur L. Cross.

Nominating Committee: Frank H. Hodder, Eloise Ellery, William E. Dodd, Henry E. Bourne, William E. Lingelbach.

St. Louis was selected as the place of meeting in 1921.

The Council announced the following committees:

Committee on Program for the Thirty-Sixth Annual Meeting: Evarts B. Greene (one year), chairman; Charles Seymour (two years), Walter L. Fleming (three years), Thomas M. Marshall, Norman M. Trenholme, Lyman Carrier, John C. Parish.

Committee on Local Arrangements: Robert S. Brookings, chairman; others to be added.

Board of Editors of the American Historical Re-

view: J. Franklin Jameson, managing editor; Wiliston Walker, Carl Becker, Claude H. Van Tyne, Guy S. Ford, Archibald C. Coolidge.

Historical Manuscripts Commission: Justin H. Smith, chairman; Eugene C. Barker, Annie H. Abel, Logan Esarey, Gaillard Hunt, Robert P. Brooks.

Committee on the Justin Winsor Prize: Clive Day, chairman; Isaac J. Cox, Thomas F. Moran, Bernard C. Steiner, William W. Sweet.

Committee on Publications: H. Barrett Learned, chairman; Louise F. Brown, Eugene H. Byrne, August C. Krey, Frank E. Melvin, Richard A. Newhall, Charles W. Ramsdell, Arthur P. Scott, J. J. Van Nostrand, James E. Winston, George E. Zook.

Conference of Historical Societies: George S. Goddard, chairman; John C. Parish secretary.

Committee on National Archives: J. Franklin Jameson, chairman; Charles Moore, Col. Oliver L. Spaulding, Jr.

Committee on Bibliography: George M. Dutcher, chairman; Sidney B. Fay, Augustus H. Shearer, Henry R. Shipman.

Public Archives Commission: Victor H. Paltsits, chairman; Waldo G. Leland, Arnold J. F. Van Laer, R. D. W. Connor, Solon J. Buck.

Committee on Obtaining Transcripts from Foreign Archives: J. Franklin Jameson, chairman; Charles M. Andrews, Waldo G. Leland.

Committee on Military History: Brig.-Gen. Eben L. Swift, chairman; Maj. Eben Putnam, Col. Oliver L. Spaulding, Jr., Allen R. Boyd, R. B. House.

Committee on Patriotic Societies: To be announced.
Committee on Service: To be announced.

Board of Editors of the Historical Outlook: Albert E. McKinley, managing editor; Edgar Dawson, Laurence M. Larson, William L. Westermann, Sarah A. Dynes, Daniel C. Knowlton.

Committee on Bibliography of Modern English History: Edward P. Cheyney, chairman; A. L. Cross, Roger B. Merriman, Conyers Read, Wallace Notestein.

Committee on the Historical Congress at Rio de Janeiro: Bernard Moses, honorary chairman; Percy A. Martin, acting chairman; Julius Klein, secretary; Charles L. Chandler, Charles H. Cunningham, Manoel de Oliveira Lima, Ambassador Edward V. Morgan, Constantine McGuire.

Committee on the Documentary Publications of the United States Government: J. Franklin Jameson, chairman; Charles Moore, Henry C. Lodge, others to be appointed.

Committee to Formulate Rule for the George L. Beer Prize: William A. Dunning, chairman, Marshall S. Brown, Edward S. Corwin.

Committee on the Writing of History: Jules J. Jusserand, Charles M. Colby, Wilbur C. Abbott.

Committee to Co-operate with the Peoples of America Society in the Study of Race Elements in the United States: To be announced.

A more detailed account of the meeting, embracing summaries of the papers read, will be given in the April number of the *American Historical Review*.

A Letter from Europe

BY JUSTIN H. SMITH, LL. D.

MADRID, DECEMBER 1, 1920.

MY DEAR DR. MCKINLEY:

Since you feel that my observations in Europe would interest the readers of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, I am happy to submit a report.

In England they were confined mostly to Devon and Cornwall. There the fields and lanes, familiar to many of your readers, are still trim and beautiful; and the landscape, as in all the old countries from England to Japan, has the special charm given it once for all when the labor of men was cheap, for walls, bridges and houses, being constructed of stone, blend with the ground and seem to humanize nature.

To my surprise, hardly any signs of the great war could be seen, except that one misses the former bountifulness of Merrie England. Very few cripples were in evidence. More men of the military age could be found than work for them to do. The children, frequently fine specimens of sturdy, blue-eyed, flaxen-haired little Britons, seemed to promise that England would continue to bear sway; and the young women, still comely, sensible, wholesome and strong, appeared quite ready to accept their full share of the toils and cares of life.

Apparently there was less feeling against Ameri-

cans than reports had led me to suppose. In my judgment it is largely a mistake to infer from the Englishman's reserve about his own achievements that he is peculiarly modest. Pride, not modesty, closes his lips. He values himself too highly and too justly to place himself in the class of braggarts, who so often have but little to their credit; and when our men, in the half-joking style so common at home, talked loudly about having to come over and end the war, many "Britishers" were angry to the core, and some of the boasters found themselves very severely handled, indeed.

But the psychology of the American has come to be understood somewhat. At one time, about a dozen years ago, the Mexicans began to be highly excited because some of our newspapers talked about annexing the northern part of their country, but *El Imparcial*, the government organ, said in effect: "Don't feel disturbed; the American business man requires his newspaper to furnish him a sensation for breakfast every morning along with his coffee, to whip his faculties into action for the day's work, and when the sensation and the coffee have done their part, both are forgotten." The Mexicans recognized that a good deal of truth lay in the remark, and cooled down. A

personal acquaintance with the late Senator Tillman satisfied me that his violent language was only half meant. As he said once, that was his vocabulary. And no doubt the English have realized that our bragging was taken far too seriously. In both England and France, indeed, so far as I could judge, people now understand that Americans are good, bad and indifferent, like themselves.

It surprised me also to find so little hatred of the Germans. One gentleman said to me that, after all, the war was merely the result of over-population beyond the Rhine. Another told me of attending a large meeting at which an ex-soldier had a great deal to say regarding the abuse he had suffered in a particular German prison. My friend had been in that prison, and saw that the speaker was a fraud. So he asked questions enough to trap him, and then denounced him as a cheat, upon which everybody laughed and applauded. Even in France, by the way, Wagner has returned to the stage.

A new idea about the rate of exchange was presented to me. Like others, I had supposed that the decline of sterling in the American market could only be considered a misfortune for Great Britain, as the decline of their own money is viewed in the other countries of Europe. But England occupies a unique position. She has free colonies that are great purchasing communities, and naturally they have been placing orders where they could purchase to the best advantage. But its present state of exchange is an inducement to buy in England; and I had it on excellent authority, that in order to promote this tendency, British manufacturers have arranged to carry large stocks of their wares at convenient points in, say, Canada. Channels of trade once opened are likely to persist—especially when carefully guarded, as these will be; and it remains, therefore, to be seen whether the chief loser is Great Britain.

It interested me deeply to observe how the prospect of a vast coal strike, with all the loss and suffering that it meant, was faced. There was a great deal of quiet sympathy, not merely with the bread-and-butter aspect, but with the sentimental aspect of the miners' case. Memories of the old days, when the owners and the government had paid no attention to the wretched state of the voiceless workers under the ground, played a large part in the agitation; and so did certain present conditions, regarding which little or nothing has been printed. For example, there are mines underlying the estates of noblemen, and the diggers have to make long walks to the mouth of the pit and then to the seat of operations, because the noblemen will not permit shafts to be sunk and used on their land. But, all the same, public opinion did not favor surrendering to the dictation of a small minority, and looked calmly even if sadly ahead, confident of getting through the affair somehow to better times.

What has aggravated the coal difficulties, as it has the Irish trouble, is a want of confidence in the prime minister. It is constantly asserted that in both fields he violated a pledge, and that, if he could not keep

his word, he should have resigned. Great numbers of Englishmen charge him, therefore, with personal dishonesty. As an opportunist, shifting his policy to meet circumstances and determined to retain his position—as he believes, it is said, that Heaven wishes him to do—he was almost sure, sooner or later, to find himself distrusted, and, though very likely he will hold his place for some time yet, the future does not look too promising for him. A man who sticks to principles may go down and rise again, for he commands respect and confidence; but a manipulator, who tries every device and then fails, is nowhere. A crisis calling for Lloyd George's undoubted talents might set him on his feet again, and, therefore, since it would be for his interest to bring on such a crisis, he may become a dangerous factor in British public life. So with home affairs unsettled and problems in all quarters of the globe, the British historical outlook will be of no little interest for some time to come.

In France I passed from north to south, visiting Cherbourg, Rennes, Nantes, Bordeaux, Lourdes, Bayonne and other towns of the southwest. In comparison with England the country seemed unkempt; but in the cities at least, though naturally the activity of war times has diminished, one could not fail to notice the animation and the signs of prosperity. Last summer the ultra-fashionable and expensive summer resort of Biarritz was so crowded that people had to sleep on the beach and on tables and floors in places miles away.

Here, too, very few cripples are visible, for great numbers of mutilated men have obtained artificial limbs, as no doubt they have done in England, and the most severely injured cannot appear in public. The chief reminders of the terrible war are the women in black, and many of these appear quite cheerful or willing to be made so. Whatever he thought of girls in short skirts, there can be only one opinion, perhaps, about a plump woman of thirty or thirty-five in a mourning gown that extends barely to her knees; and the same is true about courtships—of a certain kind—in railroad stations and on trains. *

At first sight, indeed, it looked to me as if the French had returned to the business of enjoying themselves with an enthusiasm resulting naturally from the passion, violence and exaggerated physical development of the war zone. The bishop of Bayonne in particular, basing his denunciations primarily on lay testimony and the revelations of the confessional and referring principally to those who visit the springs and watering-places of his region, has spoken recently in vivid terms on this matter.

But one must be extremely careful in judging the French. They are pre-eminently social and family people, and these qualities, like all others, are liable to run into excesses. As the American wants to begin the day with a sensation, the Frenchman likes to finish it in that way, and enjoys a dash of spice at his theatre. The tendency may be wrong, but tendencies do not prove so very much. Alphonse Karr stole hyacinths when he was a boy and St. Augustine stole pears.

Life is no doubt essentially sound in France.

"Work and fidelity, work and fidelity—that is what wins in the end," testified a successful friend of mine at Bordeaux. Square dealing is a good test, and I found it. A medical man, who must have known from my accent that I was a foreigner, named a fee that by American standards would have been ridiculously small, even aside from the rate of exchange. A jeweler charged me less for some work than I had willingly agreed to pay. A woman keeping a fruit stand, when I offered something extra for her ripest, gave me what I wished, but refused to take more than her regular price. In England things are not done after exactly that fashion at present.

One day in the train I noticed a gentleman who seemed like an American college professor, and his grown-up daughter, dressed in long skirts, was reading attentively a religious—apparently a Protestant—magazine. Another day I observed a bride with a book on the subject of woman in the home. In the French character gayety and seriousness get on well together. One need not fear that seriousness has disappeared with the smoke of battle.

And there is occasion enough for it. England and the United States poured millions of money into the coffers of the French people, until, as a Bordeaux business man said to me, there is too much of it; and it seems a little strange sometimes that French journalists, in clamoring fiercely for the last penny that can be squeezed out of Germany as compensation for the losses of France, never, so far as I am aware, make the slightest acknowledgment of this fact. But the international situation of the country is far from enviable. The Germans are too numerous; and there they are, just beyond the Rhine. They cannot be rubbed out; and France naturally wishes to strengthen herself and keep them flat on the ground. She wishes also to surround them with enemies; but her protégé, Wrangel, has failed, Greece has reacted, Poland is insecure, and, in the strange turn of international affairs, the very fact that the Germans no longer seem very formidable may enable them to construct, or at least enter, a powerful combination.

To increase her anxiety, France perceives now that Great Britain's attitude has changed. This ought not to have surprised her, and probably has not surprised her real statesmen. Long ago Montesquieu remarked that England would always make her political interests give way to her commerce; and still more ready is she, says *La France* bitterly, to sacrifice the interests of her allies to it. Now that she no longer fears Germany, she wishes that country to prosper sufficiently to become a profitable customer, and is disposed to be friendly enough to invite business relations. Probably, too, she is not at all unwilling to let the French realize how much they may need British support, and understand that the close alliance of 1914-18 is not necessarily to continue, as the French people have commonly assumed that it would.

It was therefore quite natural to inform Germany that the right, given by the treaty of Versailles, to seize private German funds lying in England, in case the German government should not fulfill all its international obligations under that treaty, would not be

exercised; but this action was a hard shock on the other side of the channel. The newspapers were full of it; and it was understood, though perhaps not said, that Italy could not fail to be influenced by the course of Great Britain.

Then it was reported that England had settled the great coal strike by raising wages at the expense of her foreign customers, among whom France is very prominent. According to Marcel Cachin, British coal delivered to English industries for eighty francs costs 350 to 400 on the other side of the channel, so that, as a French financier has remarked, the British government, mine owners and miners are going to live happily together at the expense of their neighbor and ally. Not only so, but England is said to be exerting herself to prevent German coal from competing with her own in the French market.

Signs have been observed, too, that England does not attach a purely sentimental or defensive value to her control of the oceans. What commercial monopoly signifies to her every one knows, who has observed the big dividends and wretched service provided by her shipping in far eastern seas, where German competition had not been felt. The French are therefore beginning, as the Americans may well do, to dread what may be in store for them on this account. Already Englishmen are saying that if Great Britain can adjust her domestic industrial disputes, the world is "at her feet"; and, if this adjustment can be effected at the expense of foreign nations, the problem would appear to be solved.

How strange it would seem if British commercialism, enthroned by the late war, should cause as much trouble as did German militarism, and lead to a conflict in which France and Germany should fight side by side as allies of the United States. But this might be quite logical, and would perhaps be no stranger than the recent friendship between two such traditional foes as England and France used to be. A prominent French journalist declared last month that war between Great Britain and the United States could not be postponed more than fifteen years. Such an event seems unthinkable, as well as unspeakable, but so did the recent war, and so did the present state of things in Russia. Impossibilities appear to have become easy. A league of nations could prevent small wars, but could it prevent great ones?

The internal condition of France is likewise disturbing. There are likely to be a serious business depression and a dangerous lack of work; the coal miners have recently shown a disposition like that of the British miners; and, while the great labor confederation refused to accept soviet principles, its chief leader has declared for inaugurating a revolution at the earliest favorable opportunity.

All along the line one observes in France departures from the old standards. Feminism is a movement that may signify a great deal, but I will not go into that subject. When I visited the country in 1878, a gendarme, standing solemnly by himself at the end of the railroad station, saluted each train as it rolled in, and one's every step seemed to be governed by sacred regulations; but now one can do as one does

in the United States, and I recently hunted half an hour for a policeman at the principal railroad station in Bordeaux without finding one.

In language the same tendency may be observed. English words began to come in a long time ago. The wholly unnecessary *stopper* appeared as early as 1890. But now they seem to arrive by every train. "Stand," "meeting," "girls," "dancings" (like *dansants* at New York), "skating palace and music hall circus" at Bordeaux, and "grand match de foot-ball rugby" down at Dax in the Basque region are specimens. Very different is the proud Spanish method. "Meeting" is turned into *mitin*, and "leader" into *líder*, though handy vernacular from South America is corrupting the pure Castilian. So much for France.

Spain is by no means moribund, as some Americans imagine. Getting rid of Cuba, that running sore of her finances, opened the way to a healthy development; and neutrality in the recent war both contributed to that development and saved her from the present burdens of her neighbors. To be sure, prices have gone up, but so they have done everywhere; and—principally in consequence of largely increased importations, a prospect that the railroads will have to buy heavily abroad, too much paper money, and speculations in foreign exchange—the peseta has gone down, but the tide seems to have turned. To be sure, again, though for its area Spain has a remarkable amount of surface, a great part of the surface is too nearly vertical to be good soil. But the mass of the people are as industrious and thrifty as a few of them are poor and proud; and, according to the testimony of business men, they are fairly prosperous and hopeful.

Out of the foreign debt of scarcely 900,000,000 pesetas, bearing interest at four per cent., hardly 250,000,000 (at present about \$34,000,000) are in the control of foreigners, said the Marqués de Cortina, delegate of Spain to the recent Brussels Conference; and most of these 250,000,000 are held in France, where there is an offset of 455,000,000.

For the first time in an epoch Spain has of late been feeling rich. In the shops, restaurants, cafés and theatres there is plenty of money, as well as plenty of people. The hotels, even in the smaller cities, have elevators, electric lights, steam heat and modern plumbing. At Madrid there are handsome new buildings, the streets are torn up in a way to satisfy even New York, and a large district in the heart of the town is undergoing reconstruction from the ground up; while Valladolid has a store displaying for sign the words "XXI Century." In the country the black oxen draw the plow smartly—for oxen; both sheep and shepherd look well fed; women ride their donkeys along the dusty but solid roads as if going somewhere; and even the donkeys appear to be looking ahead.

But of course Spain would not be happy according to the notions of our day were there no problems, and she has enough. In the first place her Ireland may be cited. This is Catalonia, with its haughty capital, Barcelona.

Back in the twelfth century this region was as far

superior to the rest of Spain intellectually as it is now in a business way. In a sense it belonged to the "Province," and the Provencal poets often crossed the strip of coastland between the Mediterranean and the Pyrenees, where the fertile hillsides poured out the red wine of Roussillon; and, if I may trust my memory, one of these troubadours celebrated Catalonia in a widely known song, ascribing to her people culture, wit, courtesy, gallantry, and everything else worth while according to the standards of the day. So the Catalans have always held aloof from the rest of the Spaniards. Independence has long been their dream. They are always disposed to be turbulent, and they are said to be trying at this very time to launch a revolution.

In politics Spain is peculiarly at sea just now. Owing to the hostility of Señor La Cierva against the administration, the monarchical group has broken in two; and the socialists also have split asunder. There will probably be thirteen parties in the next Congress, and the six largest of these merely bear the names of their chiefs—Mauristas, for example, who follow Señor Maura. The religious element is active; but the attempt to create a distinctive "Catholic" or "Christian" party is not regarded with much favor. The republicans are politically insignificant, and appear to be losing ground; and the socialists also will probably have but few seats in Congress, because the extreme left wing—the Sindicalists of Catalonia, who worship toward Moscow—regard the government as merely something to be destroyed, and will probably take no part in the approaching elections. Whether the socialists of the other wing will be drawn away from their own leaders by these extremists is one of the most interesting problems.

On social questions the country is deeply disturbed. The Spanish are naturally inclined to be restless, and no doubt the people are quite generally permeated with radical ideas. Strike follows strike and follows promptly, except when they march abreast. Recently all industrial activities came to a stop at Salamanca, and the whole province of Zaragoza is now indulging in a pretty general strike. But all these difficulties are exaggerated a good deal by the newspapers, I am told. Some of the window-smashing is done for the satisfaction of personal grudges, which use a "labor riot" as a mask. Industry and commerce are more or less hindered, and the finances of the country suffer to some extent. But all nations are in the same class in this regard.

The burning issue now before the people is the question of letting the railroads have more income with a view to increasing their efficiency; and this is regarded to a large extent as a struggle between the wealthy who own the roads and the masses who use them. Another issue is that of giving the minor officials larger salaries. Their pay is certainly miserable now—at the present rate of exchange about forty dollars a month on the average; but, it is contended, so are the officials. There are too many of them. They give their best attention to outside work, which their short office hours enable them to do, and slight their prime duties so much the more. Naturally the oppo-

sition asserts that, unless the present administration is turned out, the country will go to the dogs; but there is nothing new to Americans in that.

To a citizen of the United States reading the daily press in Europe, and thinking more or less in European terms, the coming entanglement of our nation in the affairs of this continent is a painful subject. Our public men are not versed in the wily and cut-throat game of diplomacy that is traditional here, and our people—sentimental and in all international matters ignorant—will have some hard and expensive lessons to learn. We shall be a good deal like the smart westerner, who makes his pile and then takes the train for New York to show Wall Street a thing or two. Are we to find ourselves lying bound at the “feet” of England, for instance? And how are we to get on with France? That country will expect us

to support her fully in a policy based upon a passionate fear and hate that we have no excuse for entertaining. Unless the last mark demanded of Germany is paid, the French talk of seizing a part of her territory, holding it by military force, and piling up another crushing bill for the costs of occupation. Can we endorse all this? If not, France will not forgive us.

There is more of the “outlook” than of the “historical” in this letter, I am afraid; but, as it will go north by a Spanish train, it may all be historical enough by the time it reaches you; and so, with the best wishes of the season to yourself and your readers, it shall be sent along.

Sincerely yours,

JUSTIN H. SMITH.

The Past and the Future of History

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I. The Current Historiography: Its Nature, Contributions and Deficiencies.

1. *The Static, Unprogressive Nature of the Current and Conventional Historiography.*

It has been more than sixty years since Herbert Spencer in his memorable article in the *Westminster Review* on “What Knowledge Is of Most Worth,” pointed out the narrowness and superficiality of the historiography of his day and pleaded for a new type of history which would reconstruct a complete and accurate picture of the past. More than forty years have passed since John Richard Green prefaced the most widely known product of English historiography with the remark that it was “a history, not of English Kings or English Conquests, but of the English People.” Yet, only a few years ago Professor James Harvey Robinson could accurately characterize the current history writing and teaching as tending primarily to be concerned with the narration of meaningless names of potentates and battles, the recitation of political events, and the rehearsal of romantic or striking episodes which have had little or no significance in the historical development of humanity.

2. *The Conventional Conception of the Nature, Scope and Purpose of History.*

Before proceeding to an analysis of the pretensions and procedure of the conventional historiography of the present day, an inquiry must be made as to its nature, origins and real contributions.

The modern political history has been variously defined. Freeman described it as “past polities,” but Seeley’s characterization of it as the “biography of states” is more accurate and clarifying. It assumes that political events have been the “backbone” of historical development and constitute the only logical foundation for the organization and presentation of historical events. In its extreme form, it maintains

that political events have been the *causal influences* in determining the nature and course of history. While these are both entirely arbitrary assumptions, supported by nothing more than opinion, and give a very distorted notion of the historical process, there would be less cause for any quarrel with the political historian if he did not proceed to rule out as unworthy of consideration all the great events of history which are not directly and visibly connected with the life and growth of the state and the functioning of political organs.

The older view of the purpose of history was most tersely put by Bolingbroke when, following Polybius and Dionysius of Halicarnassus, he described it as “philosophy teaching by experience.” History was conceived of more as a branch of ethics and homiletics than of social science. It was believed to be chiefly concerned with inculcating moral doctrine and with arousing bursts of patriotic enthusiasm through the glorification of the past of some particular nation.

While many of the better class of conventional political and episodical historians have escaped from this unfortunate misconception of the nature and purpose of history, most of the most important historians of the Nineteenth Century still conceived and executed their works according to the belief that the chief purpose of history was to glorify the national past rather than to recount in a faithful manner the real facts and forces connected with national development.

3. *The Political Fetish in Historical Writing.*

The cause for the present domination of historiography by the *political fetish* is obvious to anyone who has made a study of the development of historical writing in modern times. The source of the modern political history was the Germany which followed the defeat by Napoleon, at Jena, and which was reorganized by Stein, Hardenberg and Scharnhorst, and

inspired by Fichte, Arndt and Hegel. It was in the midst of this fervid patriotism that Niebuhr and Ranke began the work that transformed historical writing and research. The fact that many of the most influential followers of these men were Prussians, tended to sustain an unflagging interest in patriotic, political and nationalistic history throughout the nineteenth century—the period in which Prussia was securing a dominant position in the German Empire and longed for a European pre-eminence. National pride and competition stimulated a similar movement in France and England, and the American students brought back to this country the spirit and methods of the Continental historiography.¹

4. The Episodical Element in Historical Writing.

The episodical aspect of conventional historiography has a more ancient origin. It goes back to the gossip of Herodotus, the scandal-mongering of Suetonius, the melodramatic tendencies of Orosius, the proneness of the medieval annalists and chroniclers to record the novel and striking events and the rise of the modern historical narrative in the romance of Froissart's *Chronicles*. It also has a fundamental psychological basis in the notorious tendency of mankind to be attracted by the superficial, the sensational and the scandalous rather than the profound, dynamic and vital aspects of life. As Professor Robinson has well remarked, "Hundreds of thousands of readers can be found for Pastor Russell's exegesis of Ezekiel and the Apocalypse to hundreds who read Conklin's *Heredity and Environment* or Slosson's *Creative Chemistry*. No publisher would accept a historical textbook based on an explicit knowledge we now have of man's animal ancestry." The well-known fact that intellectual and educational habits and procedure are, with the exception of religious matters, the least subject and susceptible to rational analysis and progressive changes of any set of human interests has tended to perpetuate these exaggerated tendencies in the manner described in the opening paragraph.

5. The General Contributions and Defects of the Current Historiography.

No informed person can well deny the immeasurable debt which history owes to this political and nationalistic school. It was under its inspiration and guidance that history writing was transformed from the interesting but unreliable gossipy memoirs of Saint-Simon and the polished rhetoric of Robertson and Hume into the highly accurate and organized historical works of Ranke and his pupils and associates; Freeman and the English school; and Mignet, Thiers, and the French political school. It was the same patriotic fervor which led to the compilation of the great collections of sources of national history—the *Monumenta Germaniae Historica*, of Pertz, Waitz and their successors; the French *Documents Inédits* of Guizot, Mignet, Thierry, and their associates and followers; the English *Rolls Series*; Carducci's revision of the great Italian collection of sources by

¹ See H. B. Adams, *The Study of History in American Colleges and Universities*.

Muratori; and the American echo of this movement, to be discerned in Peter Force's *Archives*, Winsor's *Narrative and Critical History of America*, Bancroft's *History of the Pacific States*, and the more recent scholarly editions of the papers of statesmen and the proceedings of important public bodies and meetings. In short, it was political history which gave modern historiography its accurate methods of research and provided it with its vast compilations of primary sources.

But, as Professor Shotwell has very aptly said, the political historians were so intensely concerned with perfecting the methodology of research that they lost the sense of proportion and relative values and failed to discriminate in the importance of the events which they narrated. Instead of attempting to grasp and describe the whole current of human progress, they merely seized upon the most conspicuous chip on the surface of the waters and thus obscured and distorted the whole picture of human development. Dean Albion W. Small has admirably summarized the defects of current historiography along this line: "The quarrel of the sociologists with the historians is that the latter have learned so much about how to do it that they have forgotten what to do. They have become so skilled in finding facts that they have no use for the truths that would make the facts worth finding. They have exhausted their magnificent technique in discovering things that are not worth knowing when they get through with them. . . . The historians are locating cinders on the face of the glacier, but they overlook the mountain ranges that carry the glacier." As it was the task of the last century in historiography to bring about method and accuracy, so this century has before it the problem of giving to history a comprehensive, well-balanced, natural and intelligent body of subject matter.²

6. A Critical Examination of the Current Political Historiography.

We may now turn to an examination of the pretensions of current political history and analyze the validity of its contention that political phenomena are of such primary importance as to warrant receiving the almost exclusive attention of the historian.

In the first place, even the standards of accuracy of the political historian are open to serious criticism. The intensely nationalistic spirit that pervades much political history has been one of the most potent influences in obscuring the truth in historical writing. As Professor Gooch says of three of the most eminent political historians, "if the purpose of history is to stir a nation to action, Droysen, Sybel and Treitschke were among the greatest of historians. If its supreme aim is to discover truth and to interpret the movement of humanity, they have no claim to a place in the first class." Thus the pretensions of political history in the matter of contributing accuracy of method are not entirely valid. All that can be said is that scientific history began in a political atmosphere. The fact that it dealt with political events did not give it accuracy; in fact, the more in-

² See on this point J. H. Robinson, *The New History*, Chaps. I-V, viii.

tensely political it has been, the less accurate it has been.

The thesis of political history that political institutions and events are the causal influences in historic development is even less defensible. While no set of forces or type of institutions can be said to be entirely causal or resultant, there are few intelligent students of history and social science, today, who would maintain that political institutions are primarily causal in human development. The general results of modern research and analysis, which have been admirably summarized by Ratzenhofer, Small, Oppenheimer and Bentley, have tended unquestionably to demonstrate that, at the best, the state is but a focusing point for the interplay of a vast number of vital human interests which determine the nature and direction of political evolution. But even if it be granted that the state is the fundamental and directive force in human development, it would by no means follow that the current type of political history could secure any justification from this fact. There is astonishingly little in the current political type of history which throws any real light upon the origin, nature and development of the great political institutions of society. *There is little to be learned regarding political evolution from lists of dynasties, records of court scandals, diplomatic intrigues and military exploits.* The current type of history, instead of attempting to explain the origin, nature and development of the state, simply recites the most striking episodes connected with the history of some particular state or group of states. It would not be inaccurate to say that the average student would gain more enlightenment regarding the evolution of political institutions from Edward Jenks' little *Short History of Politics* or Franz Oppenheimer's *The State* than from the most pretentious historical work ever produced by the conventional type of political historiography. It is not unfair, then, to designate the current political historiography as an incomplete and melodramatic exposition of a superficial and distorted view of human society and social evolution.

This criticism of the unfortunate and mischievous tendency of the conventional historians to concentrate their attention almost exclusively upon political phenomena is not to be taken to indicate the existence of an ultra-individualistic or anarchistic trend in the newer history. The enlightened advocates of a broader basis for history fully agree with Lester F. Ward that the state is, in all probability, destined to play a far more constructive and more intelligent part in human society in the future than it has in the past. There is no opposition to the state as a social institution. The progressive student of history merely insists that in view of the fact that a very important department of academic investigation—political science—has now been provided solely to study political phenomena in all their phases and manifestations, history should recognize the value of a division of labor and cease to cling to political institutions as its center of orientation. History certainly has no closer relation to political science than it has to sociology, social psychology, economics or anthro-

pology. If an alleged historian fails to derive any satisfaction save from an investigation of political phenomena, he should either frankly recognize that he is dealing with only one small branch of history or seek solace in an avowed department of political science. The attempt to preserve the venerable practice of limiting history to a study of "past polities" is not only the most effective method of distorting history, but is also an unpardonable intrusion upon the domain of the science of government.

Again, the pretensions of the current political type of historians have received a new lease of life from the World War. The conflict, they tell us, was primarily caused by purely political influences, and, hence, only political history can furnish any adequate understanding of the origins, nature or probable effects of the war. The obvious answer to this contention is that the only concession to the political historian which can be made is that the war was declared through the agency and mechanism of the political organization. Its causes were but remotely political; they were primarily psychological and cultural, and this war was generated in the main by the elements of race, nationality, economic competition and a faulty educational and philosophical system. *There is, however, an undoubted connection between the political historians themselves and the war.* As Guillard, Scott, Altschul and others have so amply demonstrated, the excessively nationalistic historiography was one of the chief agencies in fanning the flame of exaggerated nationalism which lay at the bottom of the whole militaristic movement.

There remains the final redoubt in the defenses of the conventional political history—the claim that if political events are not the most important, at least they furnish the only possible basis for organizing historical events and are the best specific for the development of mental discipline in the whole range of historical facts.

The newer synthetic history answers the first of these points by maintaining that the *human mind is the only unifying thread in history* and that, as the types of influences which determine the "furnishings" of the human mind vary greatly from century to century, *no single valid set of events can be selected as a skeleton for historical organization.* In the "ancient" Orient military, religious and commercial elements were dominant; in Greece art, literature and general intellectual interests were the dominating influences; the chief significance of Roman history is to be found in its contributions to legal development and imperial administration; in the Medieval period the influence of ecclesiastical institutions was dominant; the early Modern period was significant as witnessing the rise of nationality and capital, and the Commercial Revolution; the contributions of the Seventeenth Century were chiefly the spirit and movement of colonization and the origin of modern science and critical philosophy; the Eighteenth Century was one of general intellectual revolution and it witnessed the beginnings of the Industrial Revolution, the greatest of all the transformations in human history;

the Nineteenth Century was of pre-eminent importance on account of the marvellous development of natural science and mechanical industry, the perfection of the national state, and the rise of the newer or national imperialism; the Twentieth Century will undoubtedly find its task in solving the social, economic, political and diplomatic problems which have been bequeathed to it by the dominant creations and developments of the previous century.³

This scanty review of the chief tendencies and developments in the history of the past will suffice to convince any unprejudiced reader that *no single set of factors can be assumed to be adequate as a basis for historical organization*, least of all the purely political factors, which at best could only serve as a basis for organizing certain phases of Assyrian, Persian, Roman and Prussian history. Certainly since 1500 the economic and scientific factors and influences have quite overshadowed all others. The search for a single principle for historical organization is psychologically akin to the search of the ancient Ionic philosophers for a single principle, such as water, fire, earth, air or flux, wherewith to interpret the universe.

The claim of the political historian for the supreme disciplinary value of political events is even more puerile. *This argument is the final refuge of all educational anachronisms* and has as ancient an origin as the Pythagorean belief in the magic qualities of numbers. It also is related to and supported by the basic notion of a certain prevalent type of educational tradition which holds that anything dynamic, vital or interesting to the student must be dangerous to mental growth and conducive to a speedy decline in psychic vigor. It is poor taste and worse logic for the political historian to sneer at the cognate claim of the classicist for the supreme educational value of classical syntax, and then resort to an equally indefensible contention in regard to his own subject.

II. The New Synthetic History; Its Nature, Aims, Contributions and Prospects.

1. The Decline of Political and Episodical Historiography.

There are ominous signs that the current political and episodical type of history is very gravely threatened. Indeed, it is inevitable that a rather grotesque tendency which has no justification save in tradition, convention and sentiment must sooner or later be wrecked by the modern critical and synthetic spirit which demands that every practice or institution shall show convincing cause for its existence. Books on the "New History" are appearing in constantly increasing numbers. No important textbook on history now appears in which the author does not at least profess in the preface to have given a due consideration to the non-military and non-political aspects of history. Even the "dyed-in-the-wool" political historians do not hesitate to discourse on the "New History" in quarters where the more recent conceptions of the province of history have become popular.

³ See on these changes in historical interests and influences Mr. Marvin's two books, *The Living Past* and *The Century of Hope*.

The very fact that the adherents of the older conventional history feel compelled to cease scoffing at the contributions of the more advanced and modernized historians and to make concessions in form, if not in substance, to their contentions is most significant. It establishes beyond the possibility of successful contradiction the fact that the newer history can no longer be ignored and must seriously be reckoned with even by its enemies. It unmistakably indicates that the older school of historians feel that their cause is waning and that they must begin to prepare to submit to, and follow, the inevitable tendency towards a newer, sounder and more rational type of history.

But the most important of all the evidences of the approaching downfall of the episodical history and the political narrative is the fact that the number of serious historical works which breathe the spirit of Droysen, Treitschke, Seeley and Freeman, in regard to the province of history, is decreasing at a truly portentous rate. The older history is not only losing because of the increased power of the offensive of the "New History," but also because its own defenses are crumbling for want of reinforcements.

2. The Fundamental Explanation of the Changes in the Conception of History.

If one has made any serious attempt to acquaint himself with the development of historical writing since the unknown author of the Jahvist sources of the Old Testament and the Greek "logographoi," it is not difficult to comprehend the causes for the recent changes in the conception of the scope and content of history. The historical writing of every age, as Professor Shotwell has so clearly explained, reflects the dominant interests of that period. The gossip narrative of Herodotus, the rhetoric of Isocrates, the national epic of Livy, and the polemic of Tacitus all mirrored contemporary interests. Historiography from Augustine and Orosius to Baronius, Boland and Bossuet was chiefly concerned with the religious and ecclesiastical interests which were uppermost in the minds of the educated classes in Europe for a thousand years. The rise of the national state, with the accompanying stirrings of patriotism, produced the political history which dominated the nineteenth century. But the Industrial Revolution and the unprecedented discoveries in natural science have revolutionized the whole basis of our civilization and have furnished the human mind with an entirely new set of ideas and interests.⁴

In the earlier régime when human thought was believed to be the result of a mysterious spiritual essence, when economic and social relations and positions were fixed by custom and confirmed by an inscrutable Providence, and when prowess in the natural sciences was thought to be allied to sorcery or savored of impiety, none of the most characteristic lines of modern thought could well exist. The political, economic, scientific and theological revolutions which humanity has passed through since 1750 have

⁴ I have attempted to trace this more in detail in my article on "History: Its Rise and Development," in the new edition of the *Encyclopedia Americana*.

transformed the whole basis of our civilization and have also been reflected in the development of a series of new sciences which were virtually impossible in any earlier era. These new sciences are the science of man or *anthropology*, the science of the mind or *psychology*, the science of life or *biology*, the science of industrial relations or *economics*, the science of the relation of man to his environment or *anthropogeography* and the science of social relations or *sociology*. Each of these sciences represents a new set of interests and there has grown up as the result a vital need for its type of information and analysis. Their spirit and tendencies have reacted upon history to give it a broader, sounder and more human content. Beyond this they have forever silenced such non-scientific doctrines as the biological superiority of the classical Greek, the racial interpretation of history introduced by Gobineau and others, and the myth of an Aryan race.⁵

3. The Nature of the New Synthetic History.

The contributions of this newer history can best be illustrated by examining how it answers the great problems of history, namely, what is the nature and purpose of history, what is the correct scope of history, and what is the soundest method of historical interpretation.

a. The Purpose of History.

The newer type of historian holds that the purpose of history is to give the present generation such a complete and reliable picture of the past that it will be able to arrive at an intelligent comprehension of how and why the present state of civilization came about. Only in this way can one reach a correct notion of what is really essential and progressive in our civilization and of what is but an encumbering survival from primitive times.

The newer history contends that no further motive is necessary than the desire to know with as great accuracy as possible the whole story of the past. The question of satisfaction or enthusiasm over the past achievements of any particular nation is held to be quite subordinate to the more vital necessity of knowing what actually has happened and, if possible, why it happened. The truth must in all cases be preferred to gratification and self-complacency.

While the newer history freely admits the value of historical knowledge as an aid in improving the present and in planning for the future, it sounds a note of caution with respect to the view of Thucydides, Polybius, Dionysius and Bolingbroke lest one attempt to draw analogies and formulate laws of historical causation which rest upon very frail assumptions, if not upon totally false premises. It holds that few sit-

⁵ A discussion of the relation of these new social sciences to history may be found in J. H. Robinson, *The New History*, Chap. III; F. J. Teggart, *The Processes of History*; and, by the same, *Prolegomena to History*; F. S. Marvin, *The Century of Hope*; A. J. Todd, *Theories of Social Progress*, Part III; the article on "Psychology and History" in the *American Journal of Psychology*, October, 1919; F. H. Giddings, *A Theory of Social Causation*; and L. J. Bristol, *Social Adaptation*; W. H. R. Rivers, "History and Ethnology" in *History*, July, 1920; A. B. Hulbert, *The Increasing Debt of History to Science*.

uations in a very remote past will allow of being used for data to test the validity or desirability of measures proposed for present or future application. It regards civilization as a great organic complex and contends that, as the general cultural setting of events in the past was so vastly different from the present situation, past events can furnish only a very doubtful and unreliable criterion for judging of the wisdom of present policies.

The chief way in which history can be an aid to the future is by revealing those elements in our civilization which are unquestionably primitive, anachronistic and obstructive and by making clear those forces and factors in our culture which have been most potent in performing this necessary function of removing these primitive barriers to unimpeded progress.⁶

b. The Scope of History.

The newer history would solve the problem of the scope of history by maintaining that *history must take into account the sum total of human achievement*. The historian of the new type does not try to substitute any magic basis of unity, organization or exclusion for the older political fetish, but confines his efforts to constructing as intelligible and *complete* a picture of the *entire* past as his sources of information will allow and to emphasizing the dominant features of every epoch.

It is not contended that a mediocre representative of the new school of history can duplicate Macaulay's famous description of England in the Seventeenth Century; but it is maintained that any careful and conscientious writer who brings together all that is known of the manners, customs, institutions and ideals of any age will give the reader a more accurate, comprehensive and intelligible picture of the past than is furnished by the works of the most consummate genius of political and episodical historiography. Owing to the broader scope proposed it may be expected that the synthetic history of the future will be of the co-operative type.

The newer synthetic history has enlarged the scope of historical narrative in *three distinct ways*. It has expanded it with respect to the *variety of human interests and activities which are recounted*. It has pushed back the period in which our knowledge of the career of man begins, and it has expanded the scope of history in space by showing that more and more modern history is becoming world history.

In regard to the extension of the range of interests which are deemed worthy of narrating, the newer history refuses to look upon any phase of human conduct as unworthy of consideration, but it seeks to put due emphasis upon those classes of activities and interests which the slightest reflection upon human life must demonstrate always to have been the most vital and influential in human existence and de-

⁶ Probably the most signally successful attempt at this type of historical writing is to be found in James Harvey Robinson's recent articles on "Mind in the Making" in *Harper's Magazine*, 1920; and F. S. Marvin's books, *The Living Past* and *The Century of Hope*. See also Professor Robinson's *Syllabus of the History of the Western European Mind*.

velopment, namely, economic activities, social relations, technology and natural science, and political, legal and religious institutions.

The chief novel element in this phase of the newer historiography is the greater emphasis which is put upon economic, social and scientific factors in human development. Without for a moment committing itself to the Feurbach-Marxian determinism, the newer synthetic history recognizes that civilization has a fundamental economic basis, that the state of scientific knowledge at any period determines the manner in which the economic struggle will be carried on, and that the nature of the economic process will to a very large extent decide the nature of the prevailing social relations and institutions.

The newer history desires to emphasize and clarify those forces which have made us great as a nation and to decry the previous tendency of history to be exclusively concerned with those military and political episodes in our history which give rise to a narrow chauvinism or a complete ignorance of the vital phases of our national development. It attempts to make it plain that a people can be loyal and patriotic without being more warlike and bigoted than the dangers and necessities of the times compel them to be. It seeks to make clear the fact that in our national development the great scientists and inventors, such as Franklin, Whitney, Fulton, McCormick, Morse, Field, Edison and Gibbs have been more important than our leading generals and politicians. It insists that it is nobler to have developed a great industrial democracy than to have perfected a despotic military machine, even though democracy may be compelled temporarily to take on a militaristic tone to make its future more sure against the onslaughts of despotism.

Of course, this tendency to emphasize non-political factors in the treatment of history is not new. It is as old as Herodotus, and, in its modern phase, it dates from Vico, Voltaire and Heeren. It already has been represented by some of the most eminent of historians from all nations. England can boast of the names of Hallam, Flint, Symonds, Lecky, Green, Maitland, Slater, Pollard, Dill, Morley, and Ashley, Cunningham, Rogers and the less-noted economic historians; France has been represented by DeTocqueville, Guizot, Fustel de Coulanges, Luchaire, Rambaud, Tannery, Faguet, Reinach, Jaurès, Levasseur and the other economic historians; in Germany the most conspicuous names are those of Heeren, Riehl, Freytag, Burckhardt, Erman, Harnak, Breyssig, Lamprecht, and Schmoller, Bücher and the lesser economic historians; Russia has contributed two noted members in Vinogradoff and Kovalevsky; finally, one finds in the United States such writers as Lea, Tyler, McMaster, Turner, Sumner, Jastrow, Breasted, Cheyney, Shepherd, Abbott, Burr, Bacher, Taylor, Robinson, Shotwell, Beard, and the economic historians, such as Tetlen, Coman, Bogart, Bolles, Gay, Commons, Wright, Day, Callender, Clark and Meyer.

Its attainment to an organized movement of such proportions that it seems destined to dominate historical writing and teaching in the not very distant future is what distinguishes the recent phase from the

earlier sporadic and isolated examples of this tendency.

The newer history and its allies, archeology and anthropology, have greatly extended the range of our knowledge with respect to the period of man's existence and the stages of advance through which he has reached his present development.

The ancient history textbooks which were common a decade ago, and which are still in use, were invariably prefaced with the legend of the dispersal of the sons of Noah from the plateau of Iran something less than 4000 B. C. Today, Eduard Meyer introduces the greatest of all histories of antiquity by a whole volume on anthropology. The word "prehistoric" has been abandoned in accurate historical terminology for the phrase "pre-literary history." We have the most indisputable evidence that man, in all anatomical respects entirely modern, lived in Europe at least 50,000 years ago. We are equally certain that definitely human precursors of this type of man lived there not less than 250,000 years ago.⁷

Owing to the partially fortunate fact that primitive man left no decipherable writings, the students of this period of human development have been compelled to concentrate upon examining the actual conditions of primitive life as revealed by archeological remains and not upon domestic scandals, romantic episodes, or military and political affairs. As a consequence, any intelligent student who has taken a course in prehistoric archaeology in our larger universities knows more about the life of the inhabitants of Europe in the period between 50,000 and 5,000 years ago than he could discover regarding the life of the European peoples since 3000 B. C. from all the standard courses in European history in the average university or from the standard classroom manuals on European history. To make a convenient example, Boyd Dawkins, in his *Early Man in Britain*, tells his readers more about the life of prehistoric man in England than one could glean from the standard manual on English history by Gardiner regarding the life of the inhabitants of England during the historic period. A student of European history in our universities might be excused for believing that Charlemagne used a "Pierce Arrow" touring car in his travels over his empire and that he supplied his *Missi* with "Fords," but no intelligent student of prehistoric archaeology would err to such an extent regarding the life of prehistoric man.

These newer ideas must of necessity bring with them a revolution in our historical chronology and our periodizing of history. Oriental history can no longer be regarded as "ancient." Ancient history really begins with the lower Paleolithic age, around two hundred thousand years ago, and ends with the beginning of the Neolithic, about fifteen thousand years ago. Modern history might be said to extend from the Neolithic to the dawn of written history. The period from 3500 B. C. might well be regarded as contemporary history. The major part of the so-called "historic period" from 3500 B. C. to 1750

⁷ See H. F. Osborn, *Men of the Old Stone Age*; H. F. Elliott, *Prehistoric Man and His Story*.

A. D. has in reality been the least important era in the development of mankind. The really significant achievements in advance were made before 3500 B. C. or after 1750 A. D.⁸

It is highly obvious that this conception of the nature and course of human development over a period of time which is almost incomprehensible from our conventional chronological concepts and our modern standards of measurement, and from a condition not vitally different from that of the higher animals gives an entirely new interpretation to the probable future development and the real goal of the human race. Man is no longer to be thought of as striving "his lost estate to gain." Indeed, his "lost estate" is the one thing which the informed historical student of the present would least desire to recover, as the difference between that and our present condition is what really constitutes progress and civilization. The old retrospective theological interpretation of human development, or, better, of human retrogression, has thus been entirely relegated to the sphere of the worn-out mythologies and superstitions which have all too long prevented an intelligent grasp of the nature and significance of human progress. According to the generally accepted position of the most enlightened modern students, man must be regarded as having attained at the present moment the supreme height of civilization which has as yet been reached, and as having before him a future of progress and improvement such as we of the present can have but the slightest comprehension.

Such a grasp of the true nature of social evolution gives a dynamic and optimistic attitude towards reality that is as far removed from the old theological conceptions as the real buoyancy and optimism of youth is from the vain attempt of the man of three-score and ten to renew the sensations and ambitions of his boyhood. When one is able to grasp this dynamic forward-looking tendency produced by the modern view of human development and progress, the retrospective and obstructive cosmology and psychology which have prevailed since the time of Hesiod and earlier can no longer have any basis for existence.⁹

In addition to the pushing back of the supposed period of human origins, lost civilizations have been recovered which existed within what is conventionally known as historic times.

We may pass over, as already too well known to require special emphasis, the constant extension of our knowledge regarding the great civilizations of Oriental antiquity, and the rediscovery of the pre-classical civilization of the Aegean and the eastern littoral of the Mediterranean through the labors of such men as Schliemann, Evans and Dörpfeld.

Another early civilization, the existence of which

⁸ A brilliant reconstruction of the origins of Oriental society, as well as one of the most perfect examples of the synthetic history of the future, is to be found in Professor Breasted's articles on "The Origins of Civilization" in the *Scientific Monthly*, 1919-20.

⁹ See J. B. Bury, *History of the Freedom of Thought*; and *The Idea of Progress*.

was never quite lost sight of, but the historical significance of which has only recently been discovered and emphasized, is the Celtic civilization of Gaul. The researches of Joseph Déchelette, Fustel de Coulanges, Camille Jullian and T. Rice Holmes have revealed a Celtic North European civilization, coeval with the classical period, which was almost as highly developed in many ways as the classical civilization and nearly as important in the later development of European institutions.

In spite of the corrective influence of historians like Jean Dubos, as early as the first half of the Eighteenth Century, the preoccupation of classical historians with Greece and Rome, and of the English, American and German historians with the Germanic peoples, obscured the knowledge of the existence and importance of this North European civilization until it was largely rediscovered in an institutional sense by Fustel de Coulanges and Camille Jullian and archeologically by Mortillet and Déchelette, who demonstrated the surprisingly small importance of Germanic racial traits and institutions in the historical development of Western Europe, thus destroying the myth which had extended from the days of Tacitus to the time of Droysen, Sybel and Treitschke in Germany and Freeman, Kemble and Green in England to the effect that all the important political, social and cultural institutions of medieval and modern Europe were of Germanic derivation. In spite of the fact that European history can no more be understood without a study of this Celtic civilization than calculus can be comprehended without a knowledge of algebra, the current manuals of European history begin the survey with the so-called "barbarian invasions of the Germanic people."¹⁰

Space forbids more than a casual reference to the surveys of comparative legal, political, social and religious institutions which have been carried on by such writers as Lippert, Ihering, Tylor, Frazer, Morgan, Westermarck, Hobhouse, Durkheim, Sumner, Lowie, Wissler, Rivers and others, and which have recovered for us a knowledge of both primitive and historic civilizations. Nothing could be more destructive of chauvinism or more important for acquiring a proper perspective for the interpretation of historical development, but there seem few historians who are even aware of the existence of these works.

No phase of progress in historical writing or interpretation has been more significant than the advances which have been made in the demonstration of the importance of extra-European influences on the history of western civilization. Particularly significant has been the investigation of these factors in their relation to the origins of modern times. It was long the fashion to trace modern times to the Turkish occupation of the trade routes and the capture of Constantinople, to the Italian revival of letters and development of art, or to the Lutheran revolt against the Medieval Church. Professor Lybyer has proved beyond possibility of contradiction that the Turkish

¹⁰ The most convenient source for this neglected subject is the introductory chapter and the supplementary notes in T. Rice Holmes' *Cæsar's Conquest of Gaul*.

occupation of the trade routes had no influence on the development of overseas explorations and the development of modern colonial enterprise in America and the Far East, and, along with Professors Shepherd and Abbott, has demonstrated that the great cause for overseas expansion around 1500 was the scientific curiosity of the West and the jealousy of the western states concerning the Italian monopoly of the eastern trade with the Levant districts. Further, these writers have shown that the characteristic events and developments of early modern times, colonization, the downfall of feudalism and the rise of the national state, the beginnings of representative government through the rise of the middle class, the awakening of modern science, and the development of modern commercial and economic life, are primarily the product of the reaction upon Europe of the expansion of European civilization overseas. Even the Protestant Reformation would not have succeeded but for the rise of the middle class and the awakening of those nationalistic aspirations which the expansion did so much to produce. Compared with the overseas expansion and the Commercial Revolution, the Renaissance and Reformation appear backward-looking movements.

Again, though the Industrial Revolution must be looked upon as the most appalling transformation in the history of humanity, it could scarcely have appeared without the preceding Commercial Revolution which prepared the way for its development directly or indirectly in the realms of navigation, capital, commercial practices and institutions, raw materials, markets, legal development and even the mobility of labor.

Finally, the Industrial Revolution and its direct resultant, modern national imperialism, have promoted the final stage of expansion overseas since 1870. This has led to the exploration and commercial exploitation of all remaining habitable portions of the earth's surface and has bound the whole world together as organic economic and cultural unit, however powerful the centrifugal forces may at times become. As Viscount Bryce has well insisted in his judicious *Raleigh Lecture on World History*, we can now for the first time witness a real concrete unity of history rather than postulating a metaphysical or potential unity as was the case from the Greek Stoics and Augustine down to our day. Despite anything that Senators Borah or Johnson may do or say we have now become inextricable units in a world organism, and any attempt to study, write or teach national history without considering external influences must be regarded as a hopeless anachronism.¹¹

¹¹ For a further discussion of this point of view in the rewriting and reinterpretation of history, see W. R. Shepherd, "The Expansion of Europe" in *The Political Science Quarterly*, 1919; W. C. Abbott, *The Expansion of Europe*; W. Cunningham, *Western Civilization in Its Economic Aspects*, Vol. II, Book V; articles "Nationalism," "Democracy" and "World Politics" in the new edition of the *Encyclopedia Americana*, and Viscount Bryce's lecture referred to above. The best guide is P. T. Moon's *Syllabus of World Politics*. Practical results of an acceptance of this viewpoint are evident in the Clark University Conferences on International Relations organized by Professor George H. Blakeslee.

c. The Interpretation of History.

From this scanty survey of the contribution of the newer trends in historical study to the answer of the question as to what man has done, we may turn to an equally hasty review of their contribution to answering the question of why the historical development of mankind has taken the particular course that records demonstrate that it has followed, in other words, the contribution to the field of the interpretation of history.

In a notable article on that subject in the *American Historical Review* of July, 1918, Prof. J. T. Shotwell, of Columbia University, has demonstrated that the views regarding the interpretation of history have changed in a manner strikingly similar to the variations in opinion during the centuries in regard to the proper scope of history.¹²

He traces the different stages in the development of historical interpretation showing how, following the divine epics of Oriental antiquity, the mythological and philosophical interpretation of classical times was transformed into the eschatology which dominated historical interpretation from Augustine to Bossuet; pointing out how this was succeeded by the revival of critical philosophy with Voltaire, Hume and Kant and shifted into an idealistic interpretation of history in the romanticism of Fichte, Burke, Bonald, De Maistre and Hegel; making clear the relation between this phase and the political interpretation of most of the Nineteenth Century historians; and concluding by explaining how historical interpretation, like historical narrative and description, was placed on a sounder and broader foundation through the materialistic doctrines of Feurbach, Marx and their disciples, the interpretation of history in terms of the advances in natural science by Condorcet, Comte and Buckle, and the logical culmination of the broadening process in the synthetic movement represented by the leaders of the newer historiography.

There are at present some seven definite schools of historical interpretation among the representatives of the modernized students of historical phenomena, each of which has made an important contribution to our knowledge of historical development. They may be designated as the personal or "great man" theory, the economic or materialistic, the allied geographical or environmental, the spiritual or idealistic, the scientific and the sociological. It might be pointed out in passing that the conventional type of historians either cling to the outworn theory of political causation, or, like Professor Emerton, hold that historical development is entirely arbitrary, obeys no ascertainable laws and exhibits no definite tendencies.

The best known of these schools of historical interpretation, and the only one that the current political historians accord any consideration, is that which found its most noted representative in Carlyle, who claimed that the great *personalities* of history were the main causative factors in history.¹³

¹² See also his article on "History" in the eleventh edition of the *Encyclopedia Britannica*.

¹³ See Carlyle, *Heroes and Hero-Worship*; W. R. Thayer, *The Art of Biography*.

The contributions of the *economic* school of historical interpretation which was founded by Feurbach and Marx and has been carried on by a host of later and less dogmatic writers, the most notable of whom are W. Lombart and Thorstein Veblen, are too familiar to call for any additional emphasis. In spite of obvious exaggerations, no phase of historical interpretation has been more fruitful or epoch-making.¹⁴

The *geographical* interpretation of history, which began with Hippocrates and continued through Vegetius, Bodin, Montesquieu and Buckle, has been revived and given a more scientific interpretation in the hands of writers like Karl Ritter, Ratzel, Reclus, Semple, Metchnikoff, Demolins and Huntington. Since the days of Ritter no respectable historian has dared to chronicle the history of a nation without first having acquired a knowledge of its geography. The historical work of Curtius, Riehl, Freeman, Bryce, Myres, Shaler, Semple and Payne are a few conspicuous illustrations of the influence which geography has had upon historiography. But even more important has been the work of those students of geography, such as Ratzel, Demolins, Metchnikoff and Huntington, who have shown in great detail the importance of the natural features of the earth's surface and climatic conditions in determining the regions in which the historical civilizations originated, developed and expanded. Especially noteworthy has been the suggestive, if not entirely convincing, work of Prof. Ellsworth Huntington, of Yale, whose researches in Asia Minor enabled him to ascertain the existence of important climatic changes in the past which throw a new light upon the hitherto unexplained problems of the shifting of the center of civilization from Egypt to Northwestern Europe and the invasions of Europe by Asiatic peoples.¹⁵

A somewhat belated offshoot of the Hegelian idealism is to be found in the so-called *spiritual* interpretation of history which finds its most ardent advocates in Professor Eucken of Germany, Professor E. D. Adams of Leland Stanford and Professor Shailer Matthews of Chicago.¹⁶

The attempt to view human progress as directly correlated with the advances in *natural science* received its first great exposition in the writings of Condorcet, and was revived by Comte and Buckle. This phase of historical interpretation has been sadly neglected by recent historians. It has been emphasized incidentally by Professors Breasted, Marvin, Shepherd, Shotwell and Robinson in their synthetic interpretation of history, but it remains the least exploited, and yet the most promising of all the special phases of historical interpretation.¹⁷

The *sociological* interpretation of history goes back as far as the Arab Ibn Khaldun; was developed by Vico, Turgot, Condorcet, Comte and Spencer; and has its ablest modern historical representatives in

¹⁴ See E. R. A. Seligman, *The Economic Interpretation of History*.

¹⁵ See A. H. Koller, *The Theory of Environment*.

¹⁶ See Shailer Matthews, *The Spiritual Interpretation of History*.

¹⁷ See the article "The Historian and the History of Science" in *The Scientific Monthly*, August, 1920.

Professors Giddings of Columbia, Thomas of Chicago, Wobhouse of London and Durkheim of Paris. Giddings describes it as "an attempt to account for the origin, growth, structure and activities of society by the operation of physical, vital and psychical causes, working together in a process of evolution." One of its chief concerns is to account for repetitions and uniformities in historical development and to formulate the laws of historical causation.¹⁸

But the latest and most important of all types of historical interpretation, and the one which most perfectly represents the newer history, is the *synthetic* or "collective psychological." According to the view of the adherents of this type of historical interpretation no single type of "causes" is sufficient to explain all phases and periods of historical development. Nothing less than the *collective psychology* of any period can be deemed sufficient to determine the historical development of that age, and it is the task of the historian to discover, evaluate and set forth the chief factors which create and shape the collective view of life and determine the nature of the group struggle for existence and improvement. The most eminent leaders of this school of historical interpretation have been Professor Lamprecht of Leipzig, Professor Marvin in England, Professor Breasted of Chicago, Professor Turner of Harvard, and Professors Robinson and Shotwell of Columbia University.¹⁹

4. *The Future of History.*

Even this scanty sketch will reveal to the most casual reader the fact that the "New History" is not a dream of the future, but a present and powerful reality. The most impregnable position of the older political and episodical history has been our universities, which have been mainly dominated by professors trained in Germany, and, as a consequence, thoroughly enamoured of the typical German historiography of the Nineteenth Century with its adulation of the state.

The fact that the university is the chief source of historical training and inspiration has served to perpetuate this older variety of history until it has become so anachronistic as to threaten the very existence of history itself. The vital question is as to whether the academic historians will awaken to the fact that the majority of them have dropped behind the procession and will readjust their vision of history so as to absorb these new developments, or whether they will allow them to be absorbed by psychology, economics, sociology, geography, jurisprudence and natural science until history becomes like a recluse shut off from the world of real life and vital activities and perishes from atrophy.

The inflexible and archaic attitude of the current historiography lost for history the department of economic history, in which the most important historical results of the last quarter of a century have been accomplished. For instance, with such noble subjects for its attention as the toilet of Louis XIV,

¹⁸ See L. M. Bristol, *Social Adaptation*.

¹⁹ See the article on "Psychology and History" in the *American Journal of Psychology*, October, 1919.

the immorality of Louis XV, the Reign of Terror, or the Battle of Austerlitz, the current type of history could not stoop to examine such problems as the economic policy of Colbert, the financial reforms of Turgot or the economic aspects of the Continental System, and, as a result, the departments of economics in our universities had to receive this outcast but most important phase of history.

It remains to be seen whether history will permit this process to go on until all the fruitful phases of historical investigation have been absorbed by other more alert departments of study. Classical studies were saved from their threatened demise by a shifting of emphasis from syntax to civilization. We have yet to discover whether history will exhibit a similar sagacity by shifting the emphasis from episodes, politics, battles and scandals to a study of the vital processes of social development.

While there is an ever-increasing volume of works which embody the viewpoint of the newer history, *there is no decided general movement on the part of American universities to modernize the historical curriculum.* Columbia has been the leader in this movement, and there the classes of Professors Shepherd, Robinson and Shotwell in the "New History" have had a heavier registration than the total enrollment of the historical department in all other courses combined. Professor Beard has thrown new light on our early national history, and the monographic studies on the Civil War and Reconstruction directed or executed by Professor Dunning have first made possible a synthetic view of that vital period. Chicago, Pennsylvania, Cornell and Wisconsin have shown some tendency to follow Columbia's lead in this respect. The work of Professors Farraud and Abbott in Yale and of Professors Pound, Turner and Gay in Harvard is conspicuous for its modernity and breadth of view. In the normal schools and secondary schools the older approach to history is even less disturbed in its complacent slumbers.

If the "New History" prevails in the contest which is now going on, one may be assured that *the ultimate result will be to revolutionize completely our present view of the subject-matter of history* until it will seem as absurd, for example, to study English history exclusively in Gardiner, Seeley or Freeman as it would appear to the historian of the old type to conduct a class in English history on the basis of Prothero's *English Farming, Past and Present*, or to organize European history about Garrison's *History of Medicine*.²⁰

No better conclusion could be found for this article than the words of Professor Robinson: "The 'New History' is escaping from the limitations formerly imposed upon a study of the past. It will come in time consciously to meet our daily needs; it will avail itself of all those discoveries that are being made about mankind by anthropologists and sociologists—discoveries which during the last fifty years have

served to revolutionize our ideas of the origin, progress and prospects of our race. . . . History must not be regarded as a stationary subject which can only progress by refining its methods and accumulating, criticizing and assimilating new material, but it is bound to alter its ideals and aims with the general progress of society and the social sciences, and it will ultimately play an infinitely more important rôle in our intellectual life than it has hitherto done."

Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

In *La Revue de Paris* for November, 1920, is found an interesting article by Fr. Lefebure de Béhaine on "The Count of Artois at Nancy, 1814." The author attempts to show how the events at Nancy brought about the decisive conflict which ended the war between France and England. Whether he proves his point or not, the article is decidedly worth reading.

The Catholic World for December, 1920, publishes several articles of interest to historians. Among the most important of these are Herbert Lucas's "The Life's Work of J. H. Newman," in which the great churchman's submission to Rome is analyzed from the point of view of his motives. Another is the excellent study by Dr. Herbert S. Wright of "The Czechoslovak Republic and Religion," in which he calls the Czechoslovak Republic "the natural center of Europe not only from the point of view of transports by railroads and waterways, but also by reason of its political and economic importance" and tries to define the position of the Catholics in this new state. Interesting to students of modern Italy is Dr. Palmeri's "Catholic Women in Italy," in which he says: "The best results have been obtained in the organization of Catholic women. Women in Italy are the strongest support of the moral foundations of society." In his article he traces the results of the various organizations of church women from 1908 to the present time.

In his article on "Italy and the Near East" (*American Review of Reviews* for December), Mr. Frank H. Simonds analyzes the foreign relations of the states of Southern Europe, and especially of Italy, whom he considers to be in a way the arbiter of the destinies of the lesser states. Says he: "We have seen, then, in recent months the slow but sure division of Western Asia between European powers exactly as Africa was divided a generation ago. Only in the case of the Greeks has the right of self-determination been regarded, and only here because it served the interests of the dominant sea power. As to Constantinople, it remains nominally in the possession of all the Allies, but actually the British rule there and will be able to determine its destiny."

"The Foreign Policy of France," by M. André Tardieu in the *World's Work* for January, furnishes food for thought along many lines. France is to be the leading pacifist nation, the protector of all with whom she has any relations, however slight. On the whole, M. Tardieu quite disregards the fact that there is, or is likely to be, any strained relations between France and any of those nations who have been her "brothers-in-arms."

²⁰ The most suggestive work along this line is J. H. Robinson's *The New History*. A remarkable achievement in producing a sample of the "new history" is J. H. Breasted's *Ancient Times*.

The Social Sciences in Secondary Schools

BY ANNA STEWART

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I. COMMENT UPON BULLETIN No. 28, 1916, BUREAU OF EDUCATION

I am in full accord with the idea of making the Social Sciences function socially. I regard Bulletin No. 28 as an interesting contribution to social science discussion. But I am going to object to many of its recommendations and disagree with much of its argumentation. The writers of the Bulletin have fallen into many inconsistencies, because, instead of one ease and one set of circumstances, they have had many to consider.

Let us notice a few of these inconsistencies. On page 32, advocating 9th Year Community Civics, the Bulletin says: "History—as it is usually taught—is not adapted to the educational requirements of that age." The obvious recommendation would seem to be "Change the presentation of history" instead of "Supersede history by civics."

On page 32, we are told that "Children live in the present and not in the past. The past becomes educational to them only as it is related to the present." Hence it is urged that history be set aside or used only incidentally. As adults live in the present as well as children, does not this prove too much and bow history out of the door for all of us? Or does it merely suggest a different handling of history and not a reversion to civics? Within the same paragraph, we have a statement which controverts the preceding statement about children. It says: "In the early grades, children react naturally to hero and pioneer stories." And so, indeed, do all of us—9th, 10th, 11th, 12th and graduates. We love the strange and dramatic, the remote and remarkable.

We feel also the appeal of History based on fundamental and eternal instincts and interests—the herd instinct and curiosity—economic, esthetic and social interests. Indeed, on page 39, it is suggested that we make use of these instincts and interests. "The Committee merely raises the question as a basis for discussion and experiment—whether the principle of organization here suggested may not do as much to vitalize instruction in History as it has already done to vitalize instruction in Government under the name of Community Civics." But why raise the question? Why not make the application and in the shortest time possible, namely, open the textbook and base tomorrow's lesson on the topic or the problem, "The strange way in which the Egyptians raised their food supply," or "The fighting instinct of the Assyrians and how it worked out in all aspects of their life." But, no; this is too simple for the reformer—we must rip up the course of study and substitute new courses as: "History of Food Raising," or "The Folly of Fighting." Why not let history stand as "History" and leave it to the teacher, in the light of present needs, to pick and choose the particular phase or aspect to be emphasized and the interpretation to be

applied? The teacher who cannot do this will do just as poorly with sections of history predigested for her. And who can tell ahead of time what phases or interpretations will prove most desirable?

It seems to me a most unsocial procedure for social science leaders to damn history in order to boost civics. I am not disposed to reverse the error and damn civics for history. I believe heartily in both, and regret being placed in an apologetic attitude in the case of either one.

It seems to be a favorite social science pastime to knock chronology, because, forsooth, it has been used mechanically in the past. But why tilt against windmills? Have we any teachers or textbooks in the high school today of the "What-comes-next" type? Or, why not redeem chronology—if it needs redemption?

On page 42 of the Bulletin we are told "Crusades may be taught chronologically, but institutions—as the Church—must be described as types, lasting many centuries." True, but not the whole truth. Why are we interested in the church as an institution? Only because it played a prominent part in a great historical drama. Our real interest is in the rise of papacy and church to power, its supremacy, and its decline. Our problem is not the church as a static, religious organization, but rather the relations of the church to other social institutions and to the life of the people, as these relations varied from time to time.

The Bulletin on page 48 condemns as antiquated that principle of organization which results in 1st year, Ancient History; 2d year, Modern History, etc., as being based on the "What-comes-next" order, particularly as many pupils fail to take both of these fields and in the order suggested. There are two false implications in the above criticism. First, as to pupils who fail to take both history courses and in time order. It is, indeed, to be regretted that pupils take one history without the other. But this difficulty is not peculiar to the chronological plan. It applies just as much to any other order, unless the whole cycle is made compulsory. Until European history is made compulsory, we shall all of us console ourselves with the principle stated on page 44: "Selection of a topic and the amount of attention given to it should depend not merely on its relative proximity in time, nor yet on its relative importance from the adult or sociological point of view, but chiefly on the degree to which such topic can be related to the present interests of the pupil or can be used by him in his present processes of growth." In other words, don't worry overmuch if the pupil takes Ancient History without Modern, or Modern without Ancient, if, indeed, he gets out of the history he takes all the socializing value he is capable of absorbing at that age. At least, in the chronological plan, he gets his-

tory in its entirety—political, economic, social, psychological or esthetic, ethical, and teleological—in place of a shredded section based upon a single viewpoint.

Another false implication is this: that those who favor the chronological plan are influenced by the "What-comes-next" principle. A course of study is to be praised or condemned, not as to whether it follows chronology or not, but according to the socializing value gotten out of it. And if, perchance, the chronological order lends itself to just as socializing use of material as any other plan and, in addition, offers something more, the scales may be considered as turned in favor of the chronological plan. I wonder if the critic sees nothing in chronology but "What-comes-next"?

Chronology, it seems to me, functions in a very vital way—both horizontally and vertically. Horizontally when we associate as contemporary, parallel closely interwoven movements. Slavery in United States history has these contemporary aspects: Slavery and the need for a supply of labor; slavery and Southern control of politics; slavery and the Westward movement; slavery and the rise of the humanitarian spirit. Chronology functions vertically when we put cause and effect in proper sequence or prepare the way for understanding a new era by a careful study of the preceding era out of which this new era grew or away from which this new era is to change its course. Gamaliel Bradford quotes Grover Cleveland as saying: "I do not understand any problem until I know how it came to be." And the Bulletin itself says, page 48: "The gradual and orderly evolution, step by step, of institutions and conditions is of the very essence of history." And may I add: As every institution and condition is intimately interwoven with other contemporary institutions, chronology must function at once both vertically and horizontally, if we are to give the student the totality of historical problems.

Chronological sequence should not be put in opposition to the problem method of teaching as on page 37. They are not antonyms or alternatives, but parts of a complete whole. The object of sequence is to enable one to understand the problem. Nor can the sociological view of history be contrasted with that of the mere annalist without danger of confusion in thought. The annalist has been superseded, not because he told events in order of time, but because his selection of material was not vital and he failed to perceive relationships, contemporary and successive.

The chronological order, again, is an important factor in developing the spirit of toleration. Says President Hadley in his "Standards of Public Morality": "If we start from the distant past and study the development of the various rights and usages, we shall have a good chance of arriving at a common understanding. People are more ready to accept a legal or moral principle which bears a little hard on their own interests if they see that it resulted from public necessities in the past than if they think it was specially trumped up for the occasion by some enemy of theirs."

Further, beginning with Ancient History as in the

chronological plan, we find our task easier pedagogically. Moving slowly, the youthful student is able to grasp fundamental factors and viewpoints, without being confused by details. And it is factors and viewpoints that work for the socialization of the pupil. "Remoteness in time is immaterial." We have a direct spiritual kinship with ancient Judea, Greece and Rome. I am inclined to question the opinion on page 47 that "the period since the Seventeenth Century is richer in suitable materials for secondary schools and is worthy of more intensive study," if applied to pupils of the age of fourteen and fifteen years. Is not this opinion a case of falling into the error condemned on page 11 of "judging youth by adult attitude and forgetting the fundamental principle of youth's needs and digestive capacity"? Facts are soon forgotten—ancient or modern. It is viewpoints that we apply at once and in later life.

II. A CONSTRUCTIVE POLICY

California schools offer a continuous, compulsory course of education from six years of age to eighteen; regular day school for all to sixteen; continuation work from sixteen to eighteen for those who drop out of regular school at sixteen. We are not obliged then in our intermediate schools to base the course of study (as in the Bulletin, page 12) "chiefly" on the consideration that pupils will leave school all along the way from the sixth year to the ninth. Continuation work for those who drop out at sixteen is based on the immediate needs of these pupils, both vocational and civic, and in the most direct and concrete way.

For the regular pupil who will remain with us from six to eighteen, we are free to be guided wholly by the principle laid down on page 12: "Adaptation of the subject matter and method to his immediate need of social growth." We may plan to cover the social science round, once and then again, in any way we see fit. Our wanderings in time and space will enable us to give variety, color and freshness to the presentation of social relationships and to pass on to the child his full historical inheritance.

If we arrange our world circuit in any particular order, it will not be because that order is absolutely necessary to "meet immediate needs." Any order of subjects can be made to serve that purpose by selecting out of the subject assigned topics or problems adapted to the needs of the students under consideration. To quote the Bulletin, page 36: "Every single course in history may be so organized that the pupil will inevitably acquire some familiarity with economic, social and civic factors in community life, just as in civics and problems, he will inevitably learn much history."

Although no one order of subjects is imperative, still I believe in the high school period we can utilize to the greatest advantage a full four years social science round. We have—in the Los Angeles High School—1st Year: Ancient History; 2d Year: Medieval and Modern History; 3d Year: American History and National Problems; 4th Year: Civics one term and Social Problems the other term. Out of a pos-

sible eight terms, three only are compulsory, yet we have 60 per cent. of the pupils enrolled in social science courses. The citizenship work of the Social Science Department is largely supplemented by courses offered by the English Department, three terms out of their compulsory six being devoted to patriotic and civic literature and discussion. I should be glad to share citizenship responsibility with the English Department in a way which would secure one subject of the socializing type on every pupil's program each term, giving the English Department the first two years (usually compulsory) and making the last two years compulsory in the social science course.

Community Civics in the 9th Year does not seem to me a wise recommendation for Los Angeles and other cities where Community Life is taught throughout the Elementary Grades. "Vocations" or "Occupations" also have a place in the Elementary course, making Vocational Civics unnecessary. In the Los Angeles High School, in the last ten weeks of the A 10 term, as the full-day compulsory period draws near to its end, we are giving vocational guidance and planning programs to hold the student for the ensuing two years if possible.

Ninth Year Civics not only duplicates or repeats other contemporary courses, but it also tends to eliminate 12th Year Civics. Now the subject matter of 12th Year Civics is adult, yet within the range of the student's ability. What he is taught in the 12th Year, he may use all the rest of his life in the form in which it was taught him. It does more than vaguely socialize his attitude. It functions definitely and practically (needless to say, I have in mind a term of Civics preceded by a year of American History, and not that one-year mixed course which has so long burdened with an impossible task both teacher and student).

When we begin our second social science round in the high school, we shall cover the same broad field as in the elementary school, but with some variation in aims and methods. Says the Elementary Course of Study for Los Angeles City: "The aim of social science teaching in the grades is to socialize children by using their own experiences upon which to build ideas of other peoples, even though they are far away in time and place." In the high school I should like to change this to read: "The aim of History teaching in the high school is to socialize young people by considering the experiences of other peoples and other times in order that we may discover the significance of our own." Hence I reverse the elementary order and go from past to present. "History studies the past," says Doctor Moore, "but always for the purpose of enlightening us concerning the present and to make us prepare for the future."

In the Senior Year devoted to Problems: Civic and Social, I should vary the approach as follows:

First. Stating the problem.

Second. Surveying it historically.

Third. Considering possible solutions.

In organizing a Course of Study, I have been guided by the principle of integration; in the selection

of material, I am concerned with interpretation of human experience; and as to method, I am disposed to utilize question, story or drama, topic, or problem—as one or another seems best suited to the particular material to be presented.

"Interpretation of History or of human experience depends," says Doctor Moore, "upon one's philosophy of History. The historian of the future will try to make us acquainted with the streams of tendency which are pouring themselves through the ages in the purposive undertakings of the nations. To do this, he must start with a philosophy of History and, by its aid, must select the facts which are worth having."

Teggart in his "Prolegomena to History" sees utility in history in three possible aspects: "Patriotism, ethical conduct and teleological outlook." In Teggart's "Processes of History," our attention is called to the factors at work in history and the resulting possible interpretations. The factors: Geographic situation, inherited idea system, and human nature; the interpretations: economic, political, psychological.

The political interpretation of history, like chronology, has come in for much destructive criticism. It is not necessarily associated with kings and battles. Zimmern in his "Nationality and Government" redefines "Political." He asks: "What are the common needs and concerns for which institutions have been devised? Two stand out above the rest: one, economic; the other, political. For his physical existence, man needs material goods: food, clothing, shelter and domestic comfort. As a spiritual being, man needs Justice and Liberty." Spencer, reviewing Fish's "Development of American Nationality" in the American Historical Review, says: "We welcome the deliberate selection of political development as the central point of view, on the ground that the American people have expressed themselves more fully in their political life than elsewhere and more so than has been the case with other nations"—the resulting problem is to make clear the relation of social and economic factors to this central process.

Perhaps the interpretation of history which has been most neglected is the psychological, and yet Ellwood says in his "Introduction to Social Psychology": "Social psychology is important for scientific history, if the latter is to attempt any explanation or interpretation of the connections between the facts or events it describes. The modern school of historians, in general, have come fully to recognize that history, in so far as it is interpretative, is a socio-psychological science."

We may find an analogy for adopting the psychological interpretation of history in the new use to which psychology is being put in the industrial world. Says Kelly in his "Hiring the Worker": "Had a fraction of the imagination been bestowed on the problems of the working force, which has been so successfully applied to materials, methods and machinery, we should have been further along in the matter of enlightened labor management." Tead, in "Instincts

in Industry," names as the instincts at work affecting a man's efficiency as a worker: "Family, workmanship, possession, self-assertion, herd, submissiveness, pugnacity, play impulse and curiosity."

Why limit teachers and pupils by predigested, highly problemized sections of history? Furnish them rather with the keys to the citadel of history, instincts and interests, heredity and environment, human nature and geography. Give them a philosophy of history, esthetic, ethical or teleological. Suggest interpretation as an "open sesame" to the significance of history.

And, finally, let us keep our social science teaching on a high plane. We are considering the experiences of other peoples and other times in order to discover the *significance* of our own. "History," says Stubbs, "holds a place second to none in the roll of sciences—whether we look at the dignity of the subject matter, or at the nature of the mental exercise it requires, or at the inexhaustible field over which the pursuit ranges, the knowledge of the adventures, the development, the changeful careers, the varied growths, the ambitions, aspirations, and, if you like, the approximating destinies of mankind."

Short Sketch of Party History

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Like so many of our other customs, political parties had their beginning in England. Macaulay and Hallam state that the Cavaliers and Roundheads in the days of Charles I were the forerunners of later Tories and Whigs. Most writers claim that political parties in England had their origin in the fight to prevent the succession to the throne of the Catholic Duke of York, about 1680. The success of the duke would have meant the triumph of the divine prerogative, with royal dispensations, the absolute church and business restriction. The defeat of the duke would have meant the triumph of free constitutional government, toleration in religion and freedom of trade. Thus the alignment of people into parties turned upon their attitude toward the central government. One party sought to have conferred upon the central government as much power as possible—call this the center-seeking, or centripetal force; the other wishes to detract from the central government as much power as possible, and confer it upon the local authorities—call this the center-fleeing, or centrifugal force. And about these two ideas have been formed the two great parties that have since divided the voters in England and in the United States. Neither group has adhered to any one name, or to any one definite set of principles, through the entire time, but the general principle has always been present. The central government party in England has been known as the Tory, Conservative and Unionist; in the United States as the Federalist, Whig and Republican. The local government party in England has been known as the Whig and Liberal; in the United States as the Anti-Federalist, Democratic-Republican and Democratic.

Thus the people loyal to the king in the colonies were called Tories; and the patriots, being enemies of the king, were Whigs. These same Whigs opposed the formation of the Union in 1789; they wished for much local authority in the States; they opposed the constitution, and, when it was finally adopted, they were determined that it should have as little power and authority as possible.

Both elements were present in the administration of Washington. By a common but inexplicable law, these elements took shape about two leaders. Hamilton openly admired the form of the English government, and about him clustered the friends of a strong national government; and the other element clustered about Jefferson—the very antithesis of Hamilton in every respect. Hamilton's ideas called for a strong central government—and his ideas prevailed. Why? Partly because of the strength of the man, but mostly because the conditions of the times made a strong government imperative. For ten years before the adoption of the Constitution, the country had been suffering from too much democracy, and Hamilton's strong law and order measures found ready acceptance. The assumption of the state debts; the National Bank; the tariff, a national money and the internal revenue, were all national measures. Jefferson was a born radical and his residence in France had intensified his natural tendencies. He admired the French Republic and accused Hamilton of trying to set up a monarchy; and the Federalists, led by Hamilton, nicknamed their opponents democrats, then a term of reproach. Jefferson preferred to be called a Republican, in contrast to monarchy, and for years his party was called Democratic-Republican. In the Alien and Sedition Laws, the Federalists overstepped the bounds of reason and wisdom. The times did not call for so drastic a measure, and the voters replied by defeating the party that passed them. Jefferson's support made the assumption of state debts possible; but he spent the remainder of his life explaining that Hamilton had "tricked" him into giving his support to assumption.

Once in power, the Democrats were compelled, by circumstances, to adopt many nationalist measures. They bought Louisiana without constitutional sanction; they passed the Non-Importation Act, the Embargo Act, the Non-Intercourse Act—all interfering with private business; and the bank charter would have been renewed had it not been for the casting vote of the vice-president. The Federalists, out of

power, strong in New England, became the party of states' right. They evaded the embargo, they criticized the administration, and they openly refused to support the Second War with England.

Many instances can be cited from history to show that any people, in time of great stress, favor centralized authority, even to electing a dictator. From its experiences in the War of 1812, the Democratic party became national. In Madison's first message to Congress after his second election, he recommended a strong standing army and navy, a national bank, a protective tariff, internal improvements at national expense, and a national university. The army and navy were increased, the second bank was established, the first protective tariff was passed; and had Madison and Monroe not weakened on the roads and canal idea, the nation would have embarked upon a policy of internal improvements at Federal expense.

Historians tell us that the Federalist party ceased to exist after the War of 1812. What really happened was this: the Democratic party became national and adopted all the Federalist policies, and the members of that party, perforce, voted the Democratic ticket. Hence during the decade following the War of 1812, there was but one great party in the United States. But soon divisions began to appear in the party that had twice overwhelmingly elected Monroe. The people of the different parts of the country professed to believe that their economic interests were divergent from those of the other sections, and factions began to form behind certain leaders, or favorite sons who espoused these ideas—and the era of sectionalism and personal politics had arrived. Clay, Webster and Adams became the champions of the nationalist policies, such as the bank, the tariff and internal improvements; while Jackson and his followers slipped back into the strict construction ideas of an earlier period. With the formation of the Whig party—Whig in name but Tory in principle—the Democratic party lost its nationalist elements, and soon became the party of states' rights and particularistic reaction, opposing the Federal courts, the National Bank, the tariff and internal improvements. The Whig party favored all these measures; but the strongest cement of the party, if the name "party" can be applied to a group of voters so loosely organized, was hatred of Andrew Jackson, and when the "Old Hero" passed off the scene of action, the Whigs lost their cohering influence. Fear of defeat prevented it from taking any definite stand on the question of slavery; the control of the Democratic party seemed to be permanently in the hands of pro-slavery leaders. Under such conditions, the vast body of anti-slavery voters had no party home, and as a protest against the vacillation of the Whigs, and the irresponsibility of the Democrats, they formed the Republican party. It was a minority party, a "boss-busting" party, and its leaders were downright political insurgents. It fell heir to the nationalist ideas of the Whigs, and, in the main, it has adhered to these principles ever since.

It requires no great effort to belong to a major party, but the member of a minor party must be

sincerely devoted to principle. He risks political ostracism; he throws away all hope of success and office; he becomes a political non-conformist. And since all the great world movements began as a minority, their early history is characterized by sincerity, enthusiasm, crusading zeal, direct and open support of the righteous thing. In its infancy, the Republican party possessed all these attributes. But its sudden success in 1860, due to a political accident, attracted to its ranks many men less sincere than were its founders; and the certainty of success since the Civil War has often begat carelessness, or even corruption, within its ranks.

The surrender of Lee at Appomattox marks the end of an era. The Civil War, in its broadest aspect, was a contest between the industrial north and the agricultural south. The needs, and consequently the convictions, of the two sections differed materially. And when the southern leaders were defeated in 1860, northern capital and northern industry came into control of the government, and they have retained that control ever since, working through whichever party happened to be in power. As a result, the dividing line between the two great parties during the past sixty years has been very indistinct. In fact, a well-informed voter, with a flexible mind, could have voted with either party, and have done his political principles no violence thereby. The Democrats were as willing as the Republicans to grant aid to the railroads; neither party has been a unit on the money question; when out of power the Democrats talked glibly about lowering the tariff, but when the opportunity came they lacked nerve to keep their promise.

The Union Army was a volunteer army. It was an army of the states, paid and generalized by the Federal government. Through political influence, many local politicians secured commissions from their state governor. When the war closed, they returned and resumed their former occupation. Their ability in politics, plus a successful war record, easily landed them in office. The era of pure and simple politics in our history closed with the firing on Fort Sumter. Thereafter the great body of the people took little interest in public affairs. They were weary of the endless discussions and the war, they wanted to get to work, to make money and get rich. They believed that with the surrender of Lee all danger to the Union was passed, and, after voting for the latest military hero, they quietly went to sleep and left public affairs to the leaders. For twenty years after the war, both parties suffered from a lack of competent leadership. In fact, the Democrats were so destitute of leaders in 1872 that they endorsed the nomination of a Republican. Such leaders as we then had, had risen to prominence largely on questions growing out of the war. They lacked the vision and the inclination to cope with the newer questions then coming up for solution. They were well qualified to deal with dead issues, and the party platforms were largely a code of memories.

For a brief period in 1896 it seemed as if we might have an entirely new alignment of parties. The bolt

of the gold Democrats at Chicago, and the secession of the silver Republicans at St. Louis, seemed to point to the formation of two parties, each sectional. But conditions changed. Good crops in the United States and poor crops in Europe caused an increase in prices of farm products. The influx of gold from Alaska and South Africa, together with a freer use of deposit currency, increased our circulating medium, and prices were further boosted. The western farmers paid off their mortgages and began to buy automobiles. And since economic distress causes political unrest, the revolt of 1896 was soon forgotten. With the two great parties, the desire "to catch with their surcease success" outweighed all other considerations. Candidates have been selected, not because of their inherent personal ability, but because of their availability. The platforms, instead of being a positive declaration of positive principles, have been composed of glittering generalities, designed to catch votes, and capable of an interpretation to suit the locality.

Today, the two great parties have drifted far from their ancient moorings. The strictest construction today is broader than the broadest constructions of one hundred years ago. The political descendants of a states' right party established the department of agriculture, extending various forms of assistance to the farmers of the states. They created an Interstate Commerce Commission, to take over the work formerly attempted by the states. They broke up the tribal life of the Indians. They were strong for a Federal Income Tax in 1894, stronger, in fact, than the Supreme Court was. The Democratic party today, under Woodrow Wilson, would not be recognized by Thomas Jefferson. Before we entered the war against Germany it passed a Federal Income Tax law; it established a hierarchy of Federal Banks that would make Alexander Hamilton turn livid with envy; it passed the Clayton Anti-Trust Act—Labor's Magna Carta; it told the railway executives how many hours their employees should work; it exercised its influence to say to the states who should vote; and what the people should drink. During the war it took control of the railroads and other common carriers; it levied internal taxes as high as huge Olympus; it took from the control of the states four million men, clad, fed, paid and led many of them to a foreign strand; and it revived, revamped, recorrigated and renamed the Alien and Sedition Laws of John Adams' day.

Yet the Republicans would have done the same. Taft advocated the federal incorporation of corporations doing an interstate business. Standing at the tomb of John Brown at Ossawatomie, in the burning rays of an August sun, 1911, Roosevelt proclaimed his "New Nationalism," which, if completely carried out, would have obliterated state boundaries, and would have made of the states mere administrative subdivisions of the Union.

Human hopes and human creeds,
Have their root in human needs.

A change in the conditions of life demands a change in the methods of life. No man can be indicted for changing his mind; but the motive for the change is

always open for examination and criticism. The leader who resolutely sets his face against all change is not a safe guide. He is attempting "the portals of the Future with the Past's blood-rusted key."

Today party lines are in a flux. Whether the World War was an interruption, or a revolution, we are yet to learn. No definite political issue bisects the voters today. The leaders in neither party are united on any one clear-cut issue. If it is difficult to write history, it is impossible to write prophecy. What form parties will take in the future we cannot tell. But I make this prediction: that in the creed of the parties of the future, the old, old principle—the rights of the individual, versus the will of the social group—will find a prominent place.

The sketch of Lenin by Alexander Kuprin, which appears in the *Atlantic Monthly* for January, is one of the most mystical accounts of this much-discussed man that has yet appeared. "Lenin is not a genius; he is only moderately able. He is not a prophet, only an ugly evening shadow of a prophet. He is not a great leader; he lacks fire, the legendary fascination of a hero; he is cold and prosaic and simple, like a geometric figure. . . . In his personal and intimate character there is not a single outstanding feature; they have all disappeared in political struggles and polemics; in the one-sidedness of his thought. . . . Beauty and art do not exist for Lenin. . . . He is equally indifferent to separate human acts."

In his article, "European Wars and Their Lessons," the Duke of Northumberland says:

"Whatever mistakes the Germans may have made, they never cherished the illusion that the war could be won anywhere but on the main fronts. Their whole strategy was directed towards developing their maximum strength on those fronts, and, as a corollary, inducing us to detach troops from those fronts by creating as many embarrassments for us as possible in distant theatres of war."

In his analysis of "The Republican Triumph" (*Contemporary Review* for December), Mr. S. K. Ratcliffe says: "This matter of the overwhelming demand for a change is the essence of the situation. . . . Certain it is that if Mr. Harding . . . had merely sat on his veranda for the encouragement of the reporters and photographers, his triumph would have been perfectly secure. He was virtually elected at the moment of nomination. . . . Mr. Wilson's destiny has been tragically different from this. The whole sweep of modern history does not furnish any parallel to the case of the eminent and highly endowed man who, in the hour of uttermost disaster for his Government and party, lies stricken in Washington. . . . The catastrophe comes at the end of a long spell of years during which the personal and political animosity expressed toward the President has spread and deepened in an undescribable degree. The phenomenon is almost unique in our epoch and we shall probably have to wait many years before it is adequately explained."

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University of Illinois Library
1920

A list of inexpensive, illustrated books, mainly of travel and of fiction suitable for a High School Library, which contain suggestions for costume design, color combinations, dramatic groupings, and stage settings.

GENERAL

Excellent colored plates are found in general Encyclopedias, especially in the German and French ones.
Beegle. Community drama and pageantry.
Browne. Secrets of scene painting and stage effects.
Chubb. Festivals and plays in schools and elsewhere.
Clark. How to produce amateur plays.
Craig. On the art of the theatre.
Duval. Handbook of American pageantry.
Ellsworth. Textiles and costume design.
Herts. Children's educational theatre.
Hughes. Dress design.
Joyce and Thomas. Women of all ages. 2 v.
Mackay. Costumes and scenery for amateurs.
Mackay. How to produce children's plays.
Mackay. Little theatre in the United States.
Menpeo. World's children.
Morris. Home life in all lands.
Putnam. The lady.
Rhead. Chats on costume.
Robida. "Yester-year"—Ten centuries of toilette.
Traphagen. Costume design and illustration.

The National Geographic magazine contains from time to time useful plates in black and white and in color showing the dress of the interesting nationalities of the world.

The following juvenile series are rich in illustrative material on costume:
Little cousin series. Includes all important countries of the world.
Little cousin of Long Ago Series. Historical—Athenian—Roman, Norman, etc.
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Peeps at many Land series. All important countries.
Twins Series by Lucy Fitch Perkins—Dutch Twins, Eskimo Twins, etc.

ORIENTAL

Arabian nights. Stories from; illustrated by Edmund Dulac.
Bacon. Japanese girls and women.
Bishop. Among the Tibetans.
Bishop. Korea and her neighbors.
Browne. Japan; the place and the people.
Canton. Bible story.
Erman. Life in ancient Egypt.
Fergusson. Adventure, sport and travel on the Tibetan steppes.
Firdusi. Story of Rustum.
Havell. Indian sculpture and painting.
Headland. Chinese boy and girl.
Headland. Home life in China.
Holt. Rugs, oriental and occidental.
Jackson. Persia, past and present.
Kelman. From Damascus to Palmyra.
Kipling. Kim; illustrated by J. L. Kipling.
Loti-pseud. Egypt.
Loti-pseud. Morocco.
Menpes. Japan; a record in colour.
Miyamori. Tales from old Japanese dramas.
Monroe. Turkey and the Turks.
Munson. Kipling's India.

Omar Khayyam. Rubaiyat; illustrated by Edmund Dulac.
Ostler. Arabs in Tripoli.
Pennell. Among the wild tribes of the Afghan frontier.
Petric. Tunis, Kairouan & Carthage.
Surridge. India.
Sykes. Ten thousand miles in Persia.
Wallace. Ben Hur (Players' ed.).
Williston. Japanese fairy tales.

CLASSICAL

Baddeley & Duff Gordon. Rome and its story.
Becker. Gallus.
Becker. Charikles.
Blümner. Home life of the ancient Greeks.
Bulfinch. Myths and legends.
Guhl. Life of the Greeks and Romans.
Homer. Iliad for boys and girls by A. J. Church.
Homer. Odyssey for boys and girls by A. J. Church.
Homer. Adventures of Odysseus and the tales of Troy; Padriac by Colum; illustrated by Willy Pogany.
Homer. Adventures of Ulysses by Charles Lamb; illustrated by M. H. Squire.
Virgil. Aeneid for boys and girls; by A. J. Church.

MEDIEVAL

Addison. Arts and crafts in the Middle ages.
Arthur, King. Story of Sir Galahad; illus. by W. E. Chapman.
Arthur, King. Story of and passing of Arthur; by Howard Pyle.
Cervantes. Don Quixote; retold by Judge Parry; illus. by Walter Crane.
Chaucer. Tales of the Canterbury pilgrims; illus. by Hugh Thomson.
Egan. Everybody's St. Francis.
Lacroix. Manners, customs and dress during the Middle ages, and during the renaissance period.
Pyle. Wonder clock.
Pyle. Otto of the silver band; illus. by author.
Robin Hood. Bold Robin Hood; illus. by Louis Rhead.
Robin Hood. His deeds and adventures; illus. by L. F. Perkins.
Robin Hood. Robin Hood; illus. by Howard Pyle.
Scott. Ivanhoe; illus. by E. Boyd Smith.
Scott. Ivanhoe; illus. by Milo Winter.
Scott. Talisman; illus. by S. H. Vedder.
Tappan. When knights were bold.
Wagner. Tristan and Isolde; illus. by G. A. Williams.

MODERN EUROPEAN

Austria-Hungary
Bovill. Hungary and the Hungarians.
Holbach. Dalmatia.
Monroe. Bohemia and the Cechs.
Stokes & Stokes. Hungary.
Belgium
Boulger. Belgian life in town and country.
Brittany see France
Dutch see Netherlands
England—General
Bickley. King's favourites.
Calthrop. English costume.
Godfrey. English children in the olden time.
Huish. Happy England.
Marshall. Island story.
Martin. Civil costume of England.
Quennell and Quennell. History of everyday things in England.
Synge. Social life in England.
Early English
Gillsat. Forest outlaws.
Howard. English travellers of the renaissance.
Kingsley. Hereward the wake.
Stevenson. Black arrow; illus. by N. C. Wyeth.
Tappan. In the days of Alfred the great.
Age of Elizabeth
Addleshaw. Sir Philip Sidney.
Bennett. Master Skylark; a story of Shakespeare's time.

Besant. *London in the time of the Tudors.*
Ingram. *Christopher Marlowe and his associates.*
Kingsley. *Westward ho!*; illus. by C. E. Brock.
Kingsley. *Westward ho!*; illus. by Harold Copping.
Lamb, Charles and Lamb, Mary. *Tales from Shakespeare;* illus. by Norman Price.
Mitchell. *Shakespeare for community players.*
Salaman. *Shakespeare in pictorial art.*
Scott. *Kenilworth*; illus. by H. J. Ford.
Shakespeare. *As you like it*; illus. by Hugh Thomson.
Stevenson. *Treasure island*; illus. by N. C. Wyeth.
Tappan. *In the days of Queen Elizabeth.*
Winter. *Shakespeare on the stage.*

Seventeenth Century
Ashton. *Social life under the regency.*
Bunyan. *Pilgrim's progress*; illus. by brothers Rhead.
Dix. *Merrylix.*
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Book Review

BETTEN, FRANCIS S. (S. J.) & KAUFMANN, ALFRED (S. J.).
 The Modern World, xiii, 429 pp. Allyn & Bacon,
 Boston, 1919. \$1.40.

The volume under review is the first of a two-part text, which, when completed, will narrate the story of European history from the time of Charlemagne to the present day. Part I contains a summary of ancient times extending from "before the deluge" to the end of the reign of Charlemagne, a summary of about one hundred pages, which is nearly one-quarter of the book. The remaining three hundred and thirty-five pages bring the narrative to the Peace of Westphalia. The last sixty pages deal with the "Disruption of Religious Unity," the period of the Reformation.

The schematic arrangement, if somewhat mechanical, is not without merit for an elementary text. Variations in type are used for emphasis, topics are numbered and pro-

vided with convenient headings, cross references are frequent, and suggestions are made for outside reading. The illustrations are numerous and well chosen, the maps are excellent. The general arrangement of material follows, in fact, Willis Mason West's *Modern World*, from which the authors have borrowed copiously as they indicate in their preface.

The *raison d'être* of the book is found in a statement of Pope Leo XIII's, that, for school use, texts must be composed calculated to expound and propagate the science of history with due regard to truth, but without exposing young students to any pitfalls. It would be futile to deny that history should be written with due regard to truth or that young students should be protected from pitfalls. Unfortunately, the attempt to combine these two worthy motives seldom leads to very happy results. There can never be any consensus of opinion as to just how much risk the young student can safely run in the interests of the truth, unless that consensus of opinion is attained by "authority," which is a serious handicap to the writing of history. In the book under review the pitfalls avoided are theological, but in many another text coming from the press in these days the pitfalls avoided are political. It is difficult to believe that in the long run pitfalls of both kinds are not avoided better by not trying to avoid them.

Fathers Betten and Kaufmann have frankly incorporated in their history considerable dogmatic theology. In a few instances this has marred the historical proportions of the story. On the other hand, the treatment of various ecclesiastical institutions is most illuminating and could be read with profit (and without danger) by young students of the Protestant faith. Except for the somewhat fuller treatment of religious subjects, this book follows West very closely and has the merits of that excellent text.

H. M. VARRELL.

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 Wood, George A. William Shirley, Governor of Massachusetts, 1741-1756; a history; Vol. 1. New York: Longmans, Green. 433 pp. \$4.50 net.

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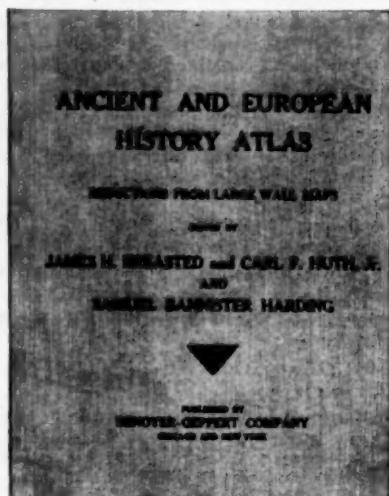
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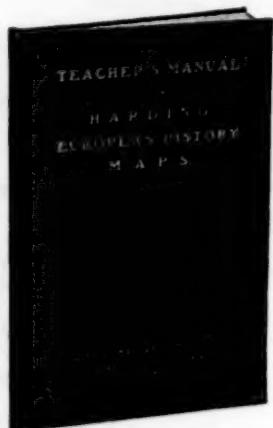
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